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ABSTRACT

This monograph is a collection of articles on research and reflection by faculty and practitioners on educational leadership. Part I, "Leading a Learning Organization," contains the following articles: "Emotional Intelligence and Leading a Learning Organization" (C. Sue McCullough); "Women's Leadership Through Agency" (Jennie Billot); "Mary Parker Follett and the Constructive Use of Conflict" (Mike Boone); "Characteristics of Effective Women School Leaders" (Jean M. Haar); "Teacher Empowerment in Texas Schools: Exploding Gender Differences in the Leadership of Texas Principals" (Gordon S. Gates and Dorothy Siskin); "The University of Wyoming Leadership Belief Matrix: Putting a Frame on Leadership" (William Berube, Suzanne Morrison, Kristi VonKrosigk, and David Stader); "The Role of the Campus Leader in Shaping the Culture of a New School" (Deborah E. Stine); "Texas Women Principals; Why Were We Hired?" (Karen Sue Bradley and Jack A. Bradley); "Selecting a Superintendent by More than Just the Cover" (Jody C. Isernhagen); "Defining and Developing Leadership: A Study of Twelve Successful Texas Superintendents" (Anita Pankake, Gwen Schroth, and Carole Funk); "In Focus" (Tommye P. Boyd); "Transforming Learning Organizations: Taproot Leadership" (Karen A. Hays); "Knotting the Score" (Virginia Wuebker); "Observations from a Pioneer" (Lu Stephens); "Success" (Carole Funk); "The Five H's of Educational Leadership: Hope, Help, Heart, and Health or...Oh, Hell!" (Jerry Austin). Part II, "The Socialization Phenomenon," contains the following articles: "Dissembling Among the Good Ol' Boys: Female Senior Educational Leaders in Southern Appalachia" (Anna Hicks McFadden and Penny Smith); "Women in Elementary School Leadership: Challenge and Change" (Linda J. Gutsch); "Administrator Preparation Programs: Do Universities Advance or Inhibit Females?" (Gay Goodman); "Women in Academia: A Review of Women's Status, Barriers, and Leadership Issues" (Christine Herber); "The Politics of Being Married in Academe: Strange Brew" (Jo and Joseph Blase); "Sexism, Safety, and Sports" (Linda Medaris); "Few Female Superintendents...A Self-Fulfilling Prophesy?" (Vickie Kivell Phelps). Part III, "Recruiting and Mentoring Prospective Women Leaders," contains the following articles: "A

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Women as School Executives: Research and Reflections on Educational Leadership.

Stephanie A. Korcheck, Ed. and Marianne Reese, Ed.

2002

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Women as School Executives: Research and Reflections on Educational Leadership

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Edited by
STEPHANIE A. KORCHECK & MARIANNE REESE

TCWSE

TEXAS COUNCIL OF WOMEN SCHOOL EXECUTIVES

Women as School Executives: Research and Reflections on Educational Leadership

Edited by

Stephanie A. Korcheck
Baylor University

and

Marianne Reese
Southwest Texas State University

TCWSE

Texas Council of Women School Executives

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Finally, and most important, we would like to thank all of the authors for their contributions to this monograph and for their incredible patience throughout the editing process.

Foreword

Elizabeth A. Clark

Hundreds of books have been written on the topic of leadership and the attributes of great leaders. We are, indeed, fascinated about this subject. Peter Senge writes about the challenge of profound change and its impact on organizations, roles, and relationships. Thomas Sergiovanni reminds us that uncompromising leadership is the crucial element in developing a positive school culture conducive to student success. In his book *Leader to Leader*, Francis Hesselbein describes leadership not as a matter of how to do, but rather as how to be. He says that, "in the end, it is the quality and character of the individual that defines the performance of great leaders."

In the world in which we live and work, there is now more than ever a need for courageous and moral leadership. There seems to be a hunger throughout the land for leaders to be fearless as well as noble. These two attributes almost appear to be a contradiction, yet their combination is the essence of leadership. Being fearless embodies taking calculated risks in order to make schools more responsive to those they serve. Being noble is about transformation. It entails inspiring people to commit to a moral purpose, a compelling mission, and ideals instead of things.

Through its many endeavors, the Texas Council of Women School Executives recognizes, promotes, and nurtures leadership. This monograph is an excellent example of the emphasis that TCWSE places upon the role of leadership development among women. The authors of the many research articles and personal reflections contained in this monograph have a story to tell. They recognize the formidable challenges facing those who currently lead as well as the challenges awaiting those who aspire to lead schools in the future. The themes that run throughout these articles are so important as we think about and prepare for the future. Learning communities, the socialization of women, recruitment and mentoring, and renewal... each of these themes is important if women and men are to thrive as educational leaders and each is instrumental in creating professional virtue and schools that work for all children.

Dr. Clark is the President of the Texas Council of Women School Executives and is the Deputy Superintendent for Curriculum and Instruction for the Katy Independent School District.

Introduction

Stephanie A. Korcheck
Marianne Reese

The concurrence of several significant forces continues to drive a paradigm shift in Western Society -- a shift from an industrial era to a postindustrial era. As related to education, this metamorphosis involves transforming the entire set of beliefs, myths, values, and techniques shared by the education community regarding the way schools are organized and managed. This shift is being driven by the recognized need for change from a mass-production to a service-oriented model of schooling as well as the perception among many that public education is in a state of crisis.

If public schools are to exist in the near future as we know them today -- campus-based facilities where students, teachers, staff, and administrators come together for schooling -- then, at a minimum, educational leaders must be equipped to adroitly handle the constant changes that will continue to result from issues related to finance, accountability, governance, technology, and student diversity. Given this context for schooling, we need, as Joseph Rost suggests in his 1993 book *Leadership for the Twenty-First Century*, to learn and then teach others "...the kinds of influence behaviors that the postindustrial leadership paradigm calls for..." (p. 184). Many of these "influence behaviors" have traditionally been associated with the feminine leadership style; however, this does not suggest that all new leaders must be women. Rather, all leaders in this new century must embrace a cooperative interpersonal and decision-making style, a team organizational structure, an intuitive and rational problem-solving style, and a highly ethical performance standard.

Rost and others in the early 1990s called for all educators -- those within the universities and the schools -- to join together in transforming leadership. His challenge is for university faculty and practitioners to conduct research about leadership in context, meaning leadership in their organizations, their communities, and their societies. That is precisely what you will find in this fifth monograph published by TCWSE -- research and reflections by faculty and practitioners on educational leadership.

The call for manuscripts for this monograph posed a series of questions addressing each of the following themes: (1) leading a learning organization, (2) the socialization phenomenon, (3) recruiting and mentoring prospective women leaders, and (4) renewing women in leadership positions. It is our hope and belief that the writings included in this monograph will move the new leadership paradigm forward.

Upon reading the articles and reflections contained in this monograph, we think you will appreciate the relevance of the title of an Adrienne Rich poem from a 1981 collection of the same name: "A Wild Patience has Taken Me this Far." Applied to women school leaders, this phrase evokes an image of women who are dedicated, persistent, energetic, expectant... and constrained by a world that has for too long not valued or rewarded their expertise and contributions as educational leaders. Much of this monograph leads us to believe that the world is slowly changing. It also strengthens our view that we have an important role to play in hastening the pace of change so that future women leaders will not have to endure the "wild patience" of today's leaders.

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Leading a Learning Organization

Women as School Executives: Research and Reflections on Educational Leadership

Chapter 1

Emotional Intelligence and Leading a Learning Organization

C. Sue McCullough

Attention to and understanding of contextually defined emotional needs are among the most important facets of being a leader in a learning organization.

Effective leadership in academic settings requires attention to emotions; specifically, understanding and managing moods and emotions in self and others. Being a department chair of four diverse graduate programs and leading colleagues who all hold doctorates offer some challenges that are unique to a higher education setting. However, serving as a department chair is likely to be similar in many respects to leadership positions in other educational settings where the faculty are well-educated, intelligent adults with a passion for teaching. That passion, which is a necessity and a mark of a great teacher, is an integral part of both an individual's emotional intelligence and the emotional infrastructure of an educational setting. Teaching isn't a profession that is chosen for its potential for great wealth, power, control, or elegant work setting. There is an emotional commitment to teaching and working with others, be they children or adults. This emotional connection may be a double-edged sword that can as easily lead to burnout as to job satisfaction.

Emotional Intelligence, General Intelligence, and Mental Health

Holding a doctoral degree does not guarantee an individual's emotional maturity or stability. It does typically indicate a complex individual who is considered smart or intelligent and who can think and conceptualize. Goleman (1995), who popularized the concept of emotional intelligence, suggests that there are different ways of being smart. An individual considered emotionally intelligent exhibits self-awareness, impulse control, persistence, zeal, self-motivation, empathy, and social deftness. Lack of emotional intelligence may sabotage the intellect and ruin careers. For example, neglecting emotional needs related to the assignment of lab or office space, promotion or tenure, or merit raises can lead to interpersonal frictions, grievance actions, and permanent rifts in faculty relationships that, ultimately, are very disruptive to the faculty, the department, and the institution. Lack of emotional intelligence has terminated many a promising career.

Mayer and Salovey (1995, 1997) defined emotional intelligence as a "set of mental abilities, separate from personality" (p. 197). In contrast, Jenson (1998) suggested that emotional intelligence is a personality type miscast as intelligence. Olea and Ree (1994) offer yet another perspective, arguing that emotional intelligence, if an intelligence at all, would be subsumed by the ubiquitous *g* (general intelligence). Graves (2000) tested these three conflicting theories of emotional intelligence: (a) a form of intelligence distinct from *g*, (b) redundant with existing personality traits, or (c) subsumed or redundant with *g*. Using measures of emotional intelligence, personality, and *g*, Graves tested the three theories using structural equation modeling to determine the best fitting theory. Mayer and Salovey's (1997) theory positing a construct of emotional intelligence distinct from

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personality and *g* was determined the best fitting model. However, examination of the observed and latent variable correlations suggested that emotional intelligence somewhat overlapped with *g*. Based on these findings, Graves concluded that emotional intelligence is a distinct construct, but that further research is necessary. Recently reported research has increasingly supported the existence of a mental-ability emotional intelligence that is somewhat distinct from standard analytical intelligence (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

Emotional intelligence has been found to correlate positively to adaptive goal orientation and life satisfaction, and to correlate negatively to depression symptomatology (Martinez-Pons, 1997). Thus, the higher an individual's emotional intelligence the more positive the individual's mental health and emotional well being. Emotionally intelligent people tend to forgo short-term pleasures for long-term ones, strive for pro-individual and pro-social emotions, and are context sensitive. In other words, emotionally competent individuals focus on socially acceptable long-term goals; display less impulsive, self-gratifying behavior; tend to have positive self-concepts and a caring, empathetic attitude towards others; and easily adapt their behavior to changing environments. Emotionally intelligent people are also defined as those who regulate their emotions according to a logically consistent model of emotional functioning (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). "Emotionally intelligent people who are good at connecting thoughts to feelings may better 'hear' the emotional implications of their own thoughts, as well as understand the feelings of others from what they say" (Mayer & Geher, 1996, p. 89).

Some forms of emotional problem solving require not only emotional openness but general intelligence as well (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Mayer & Geher, 1996; Menhart, 1999). In a 1996 study by Mayer and Geher, higher empathy scores, self-reported SAT scores, and lower emotional defensiveness scores defined emotionally intelligent participants. Dulewicz and Higgs found that the combination of emotional intelligence and IQ was a more powerful predictor of success in organizational advancement than either type of intelligence alone.

Support for the construct of emotional intelligence as a distinct cognitive ability is also found in neuro-imaging studies and in clinical neurological studies related to the cognitive problem-solving component of emotional and social intelligence (Bechara, Tranel & Damasio, 2000; Lane, 2000; Taylor, Parker, & Bagby, 1999). Research with patients who suffered damage to the ventromedial prefrontal cortex illustrated how average or above average knowledge and high IQ alone were not sufficient to implement advantageous decisions in real life because they suffered from specific deficits in the ability to process emotional signals. The consequences of these deficits were severe compromises in the ability to cope effectively with environmental and social demands. These patients could not express happiness, love, grief or anger nor comprehend these emotions in others. Their ability to communicate was ineffective, as they attached no emotion to their speech nor comprehended any in others' communications.

Leadership Skills, Administrative Duties, and Emotional Intelligence

Attention to and understanding of contextually defined emotional needs are among the most important facets of being a leader in a learning organization. Lack of emotional intelligence may have its greatest toll on children for whom risks include depression, eating disorders, unwanted pregnancy, aggressiveness, and violent crime (Goleman, 1995). Thus, understanding emotional intelligence and its relationship to leading learning organizations is important.

Ashkanasy and Tse (2000) concluded that transformational leaders possess special qualities, including the "ability to communicate enthusiasm and vision, a positive outlook, intuitive insight, and emotional competency" (p. 221). They propose that there are linkages between the emotional dimensions of leadership and the behavioral aspects of transformational leaders. A transformational leader may need to posses a high degree of emotional intelligence, which Ashkanasy and Tse defined in terms of being in touch with one's own emotions as well as being able to understand and regulate others' emotions.

George (2000) defines emotional intelligence as (1) the appraisal and expression of emotion, (2) the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes and decision making, (3) knowledge about emotions, and (4) management of emotions. She also concluded that emotional intelligence contributes to effective leadership in five areas: (1) developing collective goals and objectives; (2) instilling in others an appreciation of the importance of work activities; (3) generating and maintaining enthusiasm, confidence, optimism, cooperation, and trust; (4) encouraging flexibility in decision making and change; and (5) establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization. Huy (1999) and Carney (1999) argue that emotional intelligence facilitates individual adaptation and change, while emotional capability increases the likelihood for organizations to realize radical change. From an organizational perspective, emotional capability encompasses three dynamics of change: receptivity, mobilization and learning. Thus, emotional intelligence focuses on the individual and his or her ability to increase flexibility and adaptivity, while emotional capability focuses on the organization and its capacity to adapt and change. Understanding emotional intelligence and what it contributes to effective leadership and developing organizational emotional capability can facilitate organizational change.

Weisman (2000) explored the role of emotional intelligence and leadership success or failure in participatory work structures such as collaborative work teams and decentralized, networked organizations where the lines of authority may be blurred. These are, of course, the types of work structures typically found in educational organizations. She estimated the rate of executive leadership failure to be between 60 to 75%. The most enduring problems strongly correlated to leadership failure that resulted in performance decline included problems with interpersonal relationships and the inability to build and lead teams. Successful leaders were more likely to demonstrate facilitative behaviors by means of shared decision making, motivating others, and enabling others to perform effectively. Emotional intelligence is hypothesized to have a positive effect on the organizational outcomes of work-group cohesion, congruence between self and supervisor appraisals of performance, employee performance, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship (Abraham, 1999). It may also prevent emotional dissonance, ethical role conflict, and job insecurity from affecting organizational commitment (Abraham, 1999).

A study by Menhart (1999) found additional support for the importance of emotional intelligence, general intelligence, and administrative functioning. She measured four components of emotional intelligence -- empathy, self-regulation of mood, delay of gratification, and impression management -- by studying performance in job interviews. Menhart concluded that emotional intelligence, general and practical intelligence (the ability to apply knowledge), and positive affectivity were significantly related to a successful job interview performance. The study results supported the multi-faceted role of affect or emotional intelligence in job interview success. Emotional tendencies and capabilities as well as positive affective disposition were directly related to interview outcomes. In the learning organization, employer-employee interviews occur not only when applying for a job but throughout the educator's career as administrators conduct evaluations, consult regarding problems or issues in the classroom, or determine curriculum alignment. Menhart found that emotional intelligence mediates in job interview relationships, as interviewer and interviewee perceive similarity and liking, thus, influencing the outcomes of the interview. It is conjectured, though as yet unproved, that in employer-employee interviews of various kinds, emotional intelligence would also serve this same mediation role and contribute to the quality of the communication and outcomes.

Emotional Intelligence, Leadership, and Gender

Women leaders may be uniquely well suited to be sensitive to emotions and to the concept of emotional intelligence. In the subservient, docile, and passive roles into which women have been socialized, reading non-verbal signals is a survival skill, a means to anticipate and respond appropriately to those in power (Henley, Hamilton & Thorne, 1990). Supporting this idea is a study by Barrett, Lane, Sechrest, and Schwartz (2000) that examined gender differences in how emotional experience is represented. Female participants scored significantly higher on a performance test of emotional awareness than did male participants. Women consistently displayed more complexity and differentiation in their articulations of emotional experiences than did men, even when the effect of verbal intelligence was controlled. In other words, women use significantly more complex words, constructs, and voice and behavioral components to describe emotions than men do. These findings suggest a stable, highly generalizable effect. However, when measured and self-estimated emotional intelligence are compared, women ***under***estimate their emotional intelligence while men ***over***estimate theirs (Petrides and Furnham, 2000). This may mean that women have a more realistic view of how their superior emotional intelligence skills are valued in the workplace and that men are unaware of the deficiencies of their expression of emotional comprehension or simply believe they must be superior in anything at which a woman excels.

Female leadership and the respect for women's high emotional intelligence may vary as a function of the leadership context. A study by Wood (2000) of female leadership in an extremely male sex-typed occupation found that female leaders were consistently rated higher than male leaders, and strong leaders were consistently rated higher than moderately strong leaders regardless of gender. Wood also found that the strong female leader was perceived as distinctively different from the strong male leader. Little evidence was found for sexism as a moderator variable. This means that distinctions between strong male and female leaders were made based on variables other than gender alone. Strong leadership was judged independently from gender, though each gender had distinctive strengths that were judged distinct but equivalent.

Krause and Yonay (2000) found that in male-dominated occupations the competition between women and men was weaker, and men appeared to have a smaller incentive to discriminate against women. They also found that the gender gap in authority was larger in female-dominated occupations. Women had the highest chances to have authority when they worked in male occupations. Men had similar chances regardless of whether their occupation was male-dominated, female-dominated, or mixed.

Jackson, Esses, and Bruns (2001) found gender differentiation related to stereotypes associated with emotional intelligence. Stereotypes such as *women are emotional* or *men are rational* and the impact these stereotypes have on judgments about respect for a person were studied. Their results provided evidence that one aspect of contemporary sexism is a differentiated and greater respect for men than for women. Respect was found to have a causal impact on hiring judgments, especially for a high-status job. The researchers did not, however, differentiate between male-dominated or female-dominated environments.

In the female-dominated public education setting that has male-dominated leadership and in the male-dominated higher education setting, these studies are informative for aspiring female leaders. Women may still have to overcome gender stereotypes to earn respect for their emotional intelligence. However, in contradiction to this reality, their emotional intelligence skills may contribute to perceptions of them as strong leaders distinct from strong male leaders. In the K-12 setting, female leaders may have more of an authority gap than do female leaders in higher education where males predominate.

These contradictory cultural realities imply that female leaders in both settings may face challenges to their leadership aspirations but for different reasons and from different sources. In the higher education setting, the competition may be weaker between males and females due to the male domination but it may be more difficult for females to earn respect. Certainly, the similar advanced educational backgrounds of men and women in higher education have failed to promote equity to date. For example, only 4 of 30 public institutions of higher education in Texas have female presidents.

Using their high emotional intelligence to control their own emotional expression may be beneficial to women. Lewis (2000) found that a leader's specific negative emotional tone impacted the affective state of the participants in her study. Negative emotional display, such as angry outbursts, had a significant and negative effect on the assessment of leader effectiveness compared to a more neutral emotional display, such as eye contact. Lewis also found a significant interaction between leader gender and emotion. Male leaders received lower effectiveness ratings when expressing sadness compared to neutrality, while female leaders received lower ratings when expressing either sadness or anger. Male expression of anger did not lower ratings.

Relevant to these findings on emotional intelligence, a feminist definition of power is more attuned to the literature on emotional intelligence and leadership. Feminist power includes energy, effective interaction, and empowerment of others (Hartsock, 1981), which are essential ingredients for integrating emotional intelligence into administration and leadership. In contrast, the masculist definition of power as domination and control is antithetical to integrating emotional intelligence into administration and leadership. The finding that males, but not females, can express anger without lowering their leadership ratings (Lewis, 2000) supports the cultural acceptance of male power as dominating and controlling.

Applying Emotional Intelligence in K-12 and Higher Education Settings

Linking the construct of emotional intelligence to the passion for teaching, Golby (1996) conducted a qualitative study of two teachers who were found to have profound commitments to the students they taught. The teachers gained considerable emotional security from the intimacy of teaching children and demonstrated established, firm, and well-defended emotional infrastructure. These two teachers tended to define school or administrative matters outside their teaching as distractions and frustrations. Golby suggested that attention to these teachers' emotional intelligence should focus on enlarging their emotional commitment to the larger educational setting by getting them involved and committed to professional development through a whole-school approach. In other words, an emotionally intelligent leader could express both sensitivity to these teachers' context specific commitments and empathy and respect for the teachers' passion for teaching children, and then empower the teachers to link administrative duties such as curriculum reform to creating a better learning environment for their children.

Ross (2000) found that New Jersey middle school principals expressed value for social and emotional learning and emotional intelligence, agreeing that psychologically healthy youth were more likely to avoid high-risk activities that could have dangerous consequences for their health and well being. It appeared that the principals applied these concepts more for themselves as leaders than for the benefit of their students, however. The survey respondents reported engaging in activities related to social and emotional issues, such as developing positive relationships with teachers and encouraging shared visioning and decision making. They reported less support for and engagement in these types of activities in the regular classroom mainly because they reported less training in these areas and were fearful of overburdening classroom teachers with additional responsibilities, such as attending in-service training and then being evaluated for their implementation of the training. This seems contradictory but might be explained by male definitions of power, given that most of the middle school principals were male. Sharing knowledge and skills might be perceived to lessen their control and domination over students, who are in an unequal power relationship with the principal. The emotional intelligence construct assumes respect for all and equality in social interactions in order to be empathetic and empowering. These predominantly male middle school principals appeared to find that concept too threatening to their ability to discipline and maintain control.

In the higher education setting, faculty often resist the administrivia forced upon them by shared governance. Attention to emotional intelligence requires the leader to inculcate not only personal goals for teaching, scholarship, and service, but also group or collaborative goals related to institutional, departmental, and program functioning. It is important to communicate the larger picture, the greater good, and professional development needs that will benefit the group as a whole as well as individual faculty in a manner that supports and simultaneously expands the existing underlying emotional framework or emotional intelligence. Cherniss (2000) and others (Elias, Bruene-Butler, Blum & Schuyler, 2000) discuss best practices in helping individuals improve their emotional intelligence. Examples of effective programs include training in management interventions, facilitation, communication, empathy, conflict resolution, stress management, self-management, and identifying emotionally intelligent competencies for selection of personnel.

Conclusion

Emotionally intelligent leaders demonstrate the "ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional meanings, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote both better emotion and thought" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 3). Administrators in learning organizations frequently find themselves in situations where they take on the role of mother or father, professional consultant, arbitrator, mediator, disciplinarian, problem solver, listener, boss, and colleague. Each of these roles presents the opportunity to be sensitive to emotions, to determine the context of the emotions, and to use the individual's and the leader's own emotional intelligence to assist in personal and professional growth.

There are basic communication and listening skills that facilitate reaching these goals, such as reflection of content, restating or paraphrasing comments, and active listening. Like general intelligence, emotional intelligence is learned and is highly influenced by culture and environment. The cultural and social milieu for women in the United States offers more opportunities for women to develop and assimilate emotional intelligence into their personalities and leadership style. The feminist definition of power is congruent with the construct of emotional intelligence for women. Men can be just as effective in integrating emotional intelligence into their leadership style, but may have to overcome gender stereotypes and power differentials to do so. Women have to overcome gender stereotypes and lack of leadership opportunities. There are challenges enough for all and the literature shows that the emotionally intelligent leader will be a strong leader regardless of gender or setting.

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Chapter 2

Women's Leadership Through Agency

Jennie Billot

In our efforts to define effective leadership -- listing skills, competencies, advantageous attributes, and even outlining expected outcomes -- we may miss an important aspect of leadership, that of the creative initiative, which is a characteristic driving agency.

Debates on educational leadership are typically centred around different theories, some of which outline what constitutes good leadership, others that offer varied explanations of prescribed competencies, and even more that attempt to define how educational leadership impacts upon teaching and learning outcomes. There is another pathway into the debate, one that seeks to view the educational leader as an *individual* in a role that is both socially constructed and context specific. While this orientation is not new, it may well have significant implications for current perspectives on women as educational leaders.

I believe that in our efforts to define effective leadership -- listing skills, competencies, advantageous attributes, and even outlining expected outcomes -- we may miss an important aspect of leadership, that of the creative initiative, which is a characteristic driving agency. For the purposes of this paper, the term *agency* refers to the form of action that is instigated by people in different environments. Action is frequently prescribed by contextual constraints and logically involves power in the sense of transformative capacity. *Proactive agency* results from moving outside defined parameters and creating opportunities for new ways of working. I seek to move some of the boundaries created by definitions and prescriptions and allow for debate upon the pushed-aside element, that of the *personal.* I intend to discuss this in the context of recent reforms that have had implications for educational leadership, especially in New Zealand, and in particular refer to school principalship.

The perspectives offered here are not gender specific but are pertinent to the examination of women's leadership. The attainment of leadership positions demands the development of a leader persona and the pathway for women must differ to that of men for they occupy different socially constructed regimes. Women work with conflicts that often accompany their ascendancy to such positions, including the question of identity, balancing socially constructed and normalised roles and responsibilities, and the issue of marginality both in their professions and the public mind (Curry 2000, p. 4). The journey to leadership involves negotiation of complex inter-related social, psychological, and cultural pathways and these ***are*** gender-specific.

Changes Resulting from Educational Reform

Within the changed regimes of educational reform, there has been an associated raft of changed expectations for school leaders. In some countries and states, such as England and Tasmania, Australia, specific competencies including cultural and ethical leadership, political leadership, and personal efficacy have been identified as essential for effective

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principalship. These competencies reflect the underlying characteristics that enable a leader to perform effectively. In some countries, including New Zealand, professional standards have been developed to guide school principal performance, thus helping to clarify the knowledge, skills, and attitudes all principals are expected to demonstrate. In New Zealand, these standards are grouped into six categories or professional dimensions: professional leadership, strategic management, staff management, statutory and reporting requirements, financial and asset management, and relationship management. In essence, these standards are used to hold the principal accountable. As professional standards prescribe what principals should know and be able to do, a principal has less impetus to demonstrate other leadership qualities.

In an effort to reform school organisations, government policies such as *Tomorrow's Schools* (Minister of Education, 1988) in New Zealand and *Agenda 2010* (Education Queensland, 2000) launched in 1999 in Queensland, Australia have resulted in challenges to traditional notions of what constitutes leadership and management in schools. New forms of decision making and accountability have emerged in the school community, forcing educational leaders to adjust their roles. Current school leadership relies more heavily upon a wider range of skill sets. For example, New Zealand's move to self-managing schools that occurred within the Ministry of Education's policy of *Tomorrow's Schools* demands strong accountability for principals. The philosophy underlying this educational reform effort is consistent with other forms of restructuring in New Zealand as well as policy changes within developed economies all over the world.

Tomorrow's Schools (Minister of Education, 1988) states that the principal shall be the professional leader of the institution and work collaboratively with staff. The reform emphasises the extension of the managerial functions of principals, including such responsibilities as school resourcing, budgeting, and marketing. This approach is consistent with the economic rationalisation of the state before the education reforms were implemented (Codd, 1993). This educational reform, therefore, created a new framework in which the concept of leadership has become highly challenged and debated.

Sullivan (1998) asserts that leadership and vision are crucial in the establishment and maintenance of high quality learning and such leadership relies upon professional knowledge and skills. This view is supported by others (Black, 2000; Hausman, Crow, & Sperry, 2000; McConchie, 2000; Ornstein, 1993) who present strong arguments for educational leaders to have a range of competencies suited to the educational context. Defining essential competencies depends upon the particular educational framework in which the leader is positioned. New Zealand principals have had to make the shift from the teacher/principal to CEO/manager. As a result, these leaders have been forced to assume responsibility for many more managerial duties (Williams & Harold, 1997) and this redefinition of the leadership role presents enormous challenges for school leaders as they evaluate the different skills and capacities needed to carry out their responsibilities. At the same time, the Ministry of Education is being asked to identify the competencies they believe underpin effective leadership in order to structure appropriate professional development for new principals. This is part of a 2001 government policy to train effective school principals.

Shifting Perspectives on Leadership

It is at this juncture that I believe we should shift the boundaries of how we view what constitutes effective leadership. The demand to juggle leadership and management in educational institutions has always been a challenge, but within the reform-driven managerial culture, the skills and abilities required may need to be viewed through a different lens. As each school develops its own individualised organizational structure to reflect its vision for the school community, the leadership context is unique and dynamic. As a result the leader needs to be reactive, proactive, responsive, and visionary while at the same time being rational, focused, emotionally intelligent, and accountable. These behaviours are not always complementary in nature and can result in role ambiguity. Principals face expectations imposed by multiple systems -- not only internal school management systems and external economic, legal, political, and cultural systems but also the more informal social systems of human relationships and productivity within the school. If the leader stands at the confluence of so many systems, technical skills cannot substitute for the ability to lead (Goens, 1998).

What makes a leader? One who can follow highly prescriptive guidelines in order to fulfill designated expectations? Or someone who leads through their individual qualities of decision making and independent agency? I believe that there is a tension between what leaders are expected to do and that which leaders believe is appropriate within particular contexts. The identity of leaders and their particular form of proactive agency must impinge upon the delivery of the leadership functions. Therefore, a paradox exists between the major determinant in leadership being individual characteristics and those behaviours encouraged by the constraints externally imposed on the role. Such guidance given to the role only serves to confine the essential proactivity anticipated in a leader. Is this power bestowed in a straitjacket?

I believe that we can view leadership through an interconnected model, that of the intertwined relationship between identity and proactive agency. Cockburn (1983) states that identity is the "combination of the internal experience of place and external participation in world and society" (p. 1). Leadership has already been allied to identity, for as Curry has asserted:

> Personal characteristics and character traits are central to discussions of leadership that attribute success -- however it is defined -- to the identity or personality of the leaders (Curry, 2000, p.12).

Identity is created through interactions within several spheres of existence, including familial, social, and environmental, and will represent different cultural, gender, ethnic, and class influences. Individualised perceptions of self permit us to identify areas in which we can take initiatives. This creates the link between identity and proactive agency. As the human identity is constructed through the development of the gendered psyche and manipulated by the social environment with its mores and values, it is the *gendered identity* that offers a constructive route for proactive agency. De Beauvoir (1952) claimed that action operating through the recognition of gendered values would also acknowledge issues of gender inequality. This in turn highlights not only the differences between gendered agency, but also politicises gendered needs and efforts. As a result, initiatives taken by leaders reflect not only the context in which they are enacted but also constructions of leaders' gendered identities.

Agency as a Vehicle for Effective Leadership

Human agency can be viewed as the capabilities possessed by people and their related activities or behaviours. Agency occurs within social structures that define and mold actions that people take and it is *proactivity* that involves moving outside of those actions that are permissible and encouraged. Action logically involves power in the sense of transformative capacity. To understand agency depends upon the perspective we take. My interpretation of agency reflects an affiliation with poststructuralist theory. Henriques (1984) stated that, "the subject itself is the effect of a production, caught in the mutually constitutive web of social practices, discourses and subjectivity, its reality is the tissue of social relations" (p. 117). Thus, human agency is sited within *socially created* realities. Agents will be influenced by unique, specific, and contextually grounded situations with the expression and content of conscious agency reflecting overlapping sets of priorities. I propose to take the agency concept even further. My contention is that proactivity extends the concept of agency; proactivity assumes creative agency. While proactivity and agency both involve activity and operating mechanisms, I claim that proactivity is a specific form of agency. Proactive agents are anticipatory. They are not reacting to a set of circumstances, but aiming at transforming a specific situation. Proactivity is place and time specific, context driven, and both individual and collective. Proactive agents appraise a situation, assess possibilities of action, and aim at a particular outcome.

So if we add proactivity to the identity-agency model, then educational leadership can be seen more as an individualistic concept rather than as a list of generic competencies. This turns the concept of leadership on its head, as it allows for leadership to develop through difference rather than through an essentialised meaning. Curry (2000) states that, "Leaders are not found in formulas. Rather, the leader persona is bound up in an individual's process of becoming" (p. 20). This two dimensional, identity-proactive agency model allows for a redefinition of how people lead. I believe that this dualism can also provide another lens for examining women as educational leaders. If we apply this model to the concept of leadership, we can view women as leaders on their own terms and rethink traditional categories of leaders as political beings.

Women as Proactive Agents

While proactivity is not gender-specific, I am focusing on women as leaders and that causes me to again defer to Cockburn (1977) who asserted that women bring an all-or-nothing feeling to action. Research undertaken on women's agency can add an extra dimension to the debate on competencies for effective leaders. Throughout history women have been proactive agents, as, for example, in New Zealand, where women were the first to gain national voting rights through localised groups working toward gaining resources. So the social and historical constitution of the person is not a limit on women's agency but, rather, the precondition for women taking action (Ramazanoglu, 1993). The personal and political influences, events, and changes in circumstances that shape women's lives, especially through social conditioning and the shaping of social choices and constraints, mold the ways in which women can contest their specific circumstances of concern. By learning the ground rules of what is socially expected and acceptable, women can creatively manage and manipulate available resources, transferring their energies to laterally extend their influence into other areas. As women's agency becomes more temporally and spatially mature, so women's ways of viewing their world become modified, influencing further interpretations and actions.

Examples of agency, whether in local, national, or global contexts, reflect the specific social and developmental context of each individual. As women become increasingly more proactive, they will serve as role models for others, creating new ways of reacting and opening opportunities for others to follow. This has significant implications for women as educational leaders, for as Curry (2000) has noted, "the individual looking for a way to become a leader seeks models that reflect her own beliefs" (p. 12). Women thus become their own authorities with some developing leadership skills and others choosing to follow. Massey (1994) defines this development as emerging from the geography of social relations, the interconnectedness between personal identity and specific context. It is in this way that women, as proactive role models, illuminate different styles and methods that can be used in circumstances more traditionally defined by male leaders. This is particularly true of secondary schools, especially in New Zealand, where males have historically held, and currently hold, the majority of principal positions.

The perspectives offered here do not preclude certain competencies and skills being advantageous to positions of educational leadership. Instead, I assert that effective school leaders successfully respond to the demands of structural responsibilities with the confidence of individualised agency. Women as leaders can balance socially constructed and normalised roles and responsibilities with their own acknowledgement of identity and an acceptance of proactive agency. In this way we can view proactivity as one element of behaviour that allows personal identity to shape the way the leadership role is embraced. This permits a more fluid appreciation of what makes an effective leader. For example, Hall notes in her 1996 study of women school heads that leadership styles are exhibited as exemplars, motivators, interpreters, opportunists, reflectors, and facilitators.

Acknowledging individualisation creates yet another perspective into understanding demonstrations of leadership abilities. As more women take advantage of this developmental path, so new spaces and places can be created in which women can find a niche. This is particularly encouraging in schools, both co-educational and single-sexed, where women as leaders can illustrate how it is possible to move in ways not anticipated as part of their gendered regime. Women principals can develop different acceptable forms of leadership that challenge more traditional ways of working. One way of describing this is using one's sense of identity to *creative individualism* (Marshall, 1984), when individual power is combined with the recognition of how to negotiate structural constraints.

Conclusion

In education's multiple systems environment, effective leaders need to be comfortable with themselves as people and as professionals and be able to withstand differing, and sometimes conflicting, expectations (Goens, 1998). The proactive-agent model allows for individualisation of the role of school leader. Women school principals can be accountable for their responsibilities but do so by acting outside the boundaries of conformity to achieve the visions for their schools. It is accepted that women work differently than men. For example, Wolf (1993) asserts that women rely on communication to connect with others, while men prefer to work through the hierarchy. Women's more lateral approach allows for many opportunities to make changes to contemporary phenomena, in both private and public sectors, by providing support, cooperation, reassurance, and energy for initiating forays into less familiar arenas. In particular, the development of flatter management structures, notably characteristic of women's ways of working, is viewed as increasingly important for management (Claes, 1999). This is especially relevant in self-managing schools where the trend is to work within flatter organisational structures.

Hall argues that women school leaders operate within a value framework and repertoire of behaviours that are broader and, in some respects, different from that associated with men as managers (1996, p. 8). Women also focus more on the means than the end (Hall, 1996). At a time when managing change is crucial, communication, mediation, and the diffusion of knowledge is critical. Women can combine their strengths of networking, teaming, and the sharing of power and information to create new patterns of leadership. Cockburn (1991) talks of the new voice in organisations, a different way of doing things. This utilises not only the more easily identified generic skills of leadership, but also those creatively developed.

Professional leadership has been viewed as the special ingredient that enables an organisation to be vibrant, innovative, purposeful, and successful (Harkness, 1996). I contend that we need to broaden our perspectives of what constitutes effective educational leadership. Those who can exhibit a full range of leadership abilities while, at the same time, retain their own identifiable style and raison d'etre bring greater integrity to their role.

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Chapter 3

Mary Parker Follett and the Constructive Use of Conflict

Mike Boone

The determining factor in adopting a confrontational or non-confrontational approach to conflict in an organizational setting may be training rather than gender.

Conflict is an ever-present aspect of organizational life. Anyone who has ever worked in or led an organization -- no matter what the size, purpose, or configuration of that organization -- has had to deal with his or her share of conflict. Most of us have wished fervently that conflict would just go away. But conflict does not go away. It is as much a part of organizational life as paperwork. There are ways, however, for administrators to manage conflict that are more effective than others. Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933), a management theorist and consultant, developed one of the most insightful approaches to conflict management nearly 75 years ago. Her ideas were first presented in a paper she delivered to the Bureau of Personnel Administration in New York City in January 1925. These ideas have stood the test of time. What makes Follett's approach to conflict resolution so powerful is not is antecedents, but its utility. Her approach works and it works in ways that contribute to the overall health and learning of the organization. To Follett, these are the real goals of conflict resolution.

In developing her views on conflict, Follett drew extensively on her own experiences. At the time of her appearance before the New York executives, Follett had published three books: *The Speaker of the United States House of Representatives* (1896), published two years before her graduation *magna cum laude* from Radcliffe College; *The New State* (1920), a reinterpretation of American democracy; and *Creative Experience* (1924), which chronicled her growing interest in the fields of business and industry (Graham, 1995). Follett had been active in the settlement house movement in her native Boston and had served on several prestigious Massachusetts boards and commissions. The years between 1925 and her death eight years later would see her fame as a business consultant spread both in the United States and in Great Britain. As a management theorist, Follett was prophetic. Pauline Graham, her most recent biographer, notes, "It is remarkable how much Follett knew and understood, how far ahead of her time she was, yet how readily she was accepted..." (Graham, 1995, p. 14). In many ways, Follett was an anomaly -- a scholar and theorist who never had an academic career and a successful business consultant who never operated a for-profit enterprise. Yet people in positions of power were drawn to her. What seemed to attract them were the clarity and cogency of her ideas and the power of her personality. Lyndal Urwick's description of his first meeting with Follett, illustrates this attraction. Coerced by his employer into forgoing a weekend in London with his new bride to attend a conference where Follett was speaking, Urwick was decidedly unimpressed. But then he was introduced to Follett and in a very brief time he was "...at her feet, where I remained for the rest of my life" (quoted in Davis, 1997, p. 2).

Historically, Follett is classified as a precursor of the Human Relations Movement in

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administrative theory (Hoy & Miskel, 2001), although the classification is not altogether exact. There is an undercurrent of manipulation, of *buying* compliance in the Human Relations Movement that one does not find in Follett (Child, 1995). She seems to have honestly believed that people in organizations could -- and would -- behave in ways she advocated. What is clear, however, is that many *current* management theories had their inception in Follett's writings. Warren Bennis (1995), a pioneer in modern organizational theory, expressed it this way:

> Just about everything written today about leadership and organizations comes from Mary Parker Follett's writings and lectures.... Whether the subject is the shift in paradigms from a command and control, hierarchically driven organization to a more empowere and democratic type or the significance of shared vision or the importance of achieving an "integrated picture of the situation" or the need for "expert" rather than coercive power, Follett was there first (p. 178).

Mary Parker Follett was essentially a utopian and romantic who wrote incisively about the practicalities of modern business (Kanter, 1995). Her ideas are rooted in the traditions of American optimism and egalitarianism and run counter to our culture of individualism and traditions of social engineering. She speaks to us from the days before fascism and communism, from before the Holocaust, the atomic bomb, and the confrontational politics of our own time. Hers is a philosophy of relationships "stemming from a belief in human goodness and the cooperative spirit" (Kanter, 1995, p. xviii). Mary Parker Follett is a theorist whose work still has something to teach us. And her lessons are especially pertinent to the understanding of organizational conflict.

Constructive Conflict

Conflict is too often seen as something aberrant in an organization, a sign that the organization is troubled and perhaps unhealthy. It has even been equated with warfare. Follett strongly disagreed with this view of conflict. Instead, she considered conflict to simply be the appearance of difference in the organization. Differences of opinion and interest were normal in an organization and to be expected. Rather than being a sign of trouble, Follett believed conflict to be the sign of health and progress. Her advice to managers was not to condemn conflict, but to make it work for the betterment of the organization. The test of a strong organization is not how many conflicts occur, "but what are the conflicts? And how do you deal with them?" (Follett, 1995, p. 72). Conflict is a normal part of organizational life and imaginative conflict resolution one of management's more important responsibilities.

Follett recognized that there were a variety of ways to deal with organizational conflict. The first is through the exercise of power to suppress conflict and to punish those who caused it. Follett called this *domination* and noted that, while it was the easiest way to deal with conflict, it was also the least successful in the long run. Suppression generally means that the conflict will reemerge at another time and in a more virulent form.

Parties to a conflict sometimes seek to reach a compromise to resolve the issues between them. Follett conceded that *compromise* was a better choice than domination as a way of resolving conflict. It was, after all, an emerging approach to resolving labor-management conflict in industrial organizations in the 1920s and compromise had long been a method of resolving political and diplomatic disputes within and between nations. However, compromise as a conflict resolution strategy has its shortcomings. The major problem is that in order to reach a workable compromise, both parties have to give up something to achieve peace or, at a minimum, to let the organizational activity interrupted by the conflict continue. Since no one really likes to surrender something of value, and will normally do so only in the hope of gaining something of equal or greater value in the future, the conflict is never really resolved. It is just postponed.

Follett believed that there was a better way than either domination or compromise to manage conflict. This better way was through the *integration* of interests, which means that the parties to a conflict work together to find solutions in which the needs of both parties can be satisfied without requiring either party to sacrifice anything of value to achieve peace or the continuation of organizational activity. Follett conceded that integration was very difficult to accomplish. It requires a high level of imagination, intelligence, inventiveness, and time. She also recognized that integration was not always possible. Sometimes one party to a conflict seeks to dominate the other or conceals a hidden agenda in the conflict. Frequently, people are unable to control their desire to fight through to a victory. And, occasionally, interests are so mutually exclusive that no integration can be achieved. But where integration is possible, Follett asked, why not try it?

How can integration be achieved? Follett had several suggestions. First, differences had to be brought out into the open. Interests that are unknown cannot be integrated. And there is a further advantage to bringing interests into the open. Sometimes, the differences being touted as causing the conflict are peripheral and the real conflict may lie elsewhere. In either case, until conflicting interests are known and the real sources of conflict uncovered, integration cannot begin. A further value in bringing differences into the open is that sometimes simply stating the differences can lead to a reevaluation of an opinion or interest or to a realization that perceived differences do not in fact exist. Sometimes in a conflict, Follett noted, a simultaneous reevaluation occurs and "unity precipitates itself" (Follett, 1995, p. 75).

Follett suggests that integration is facilitated when both sides to a conflict break down their demands into their constituent parts. This allows two things to happen. First, the subproblems to the conflict become clearer. Resolving smaller problems is often easier than addressing larger ones, which sometimes disappear once the smaller problems are resolved. Breaking down demands into their component parts also allows the parties to examine the symbols used to communicate the issues. The main culprit here is language. Integration requires a scrutiny of the language used to express problems to uncover what is really meant. Follett illustrated her point with the following personal experience:

> I went into the Edison Light Company and said to the a young woman at a counter, "Where shall I go to speak about my bill?" "Room D for complaints," she replied. "But I don't wish to make a complaint," I said. "I thought there was a mistake in your bill." "I think there is," I said, "but I don't wish to complain about it; it was a very natural mistake." The girl looked nonplussed, and as she was obviously speechless a man came out from behind a desk and said: "You would prefer to ask for an adjustment, wouldn't you?" and we had a chat about it. (Follett, 1995. p. 84)

Mutual understanding of the meaning of words and other symbols used to express differences is central to achieving our purpose.

Lastly, the concept of circular response is basic to understanding Follett's approach to conflict management. One of the central processes in achieving integration is for both parties to respond in some way to the opinions, interests, and demands of the other. Rather than being linear, Follett believes that response occurs in a circular fashion. She uses the example of a tennis game to illustrate this point:

> *A* serves the ball. The way *B* returns the ball depends in part on the way in which *A* served it. *A*'s next play will depend on the original serve, plus *B*'s return of the original serve, and so on.

In a conflict situation one party acts and this behavior calls forth a response from the other party. The first party responds again, but the response reflects in part the relationship between the parties. "Response is always a relation" explains Follett. "I respond not only to you, but to the relation between you and me" (Follett, 1995, p. 81). Behavior helps to create the situation in which conflict arise. It also develops the situation to which the parties are responding. To achieve integration, both parties must work within the evolving situation and be aware of the contribution of their own behavior to that situation. As the parties to a conflict continue to respond to one another in this manner, differences diminish and integration becomes possible. Circular response as the basis of integration is the key to Follett's concept of constructive conflict management.

There are, of course, obstacles to integration and Follett is aware of them. She recognizes that integration is not an easy process. It requires a high order of intelligence, keen perception, good judgment, and uncommon inventiveness. No one person is likely to possess all of these capabilities, but they can be found in others involved in the conflict. The key is to bring these skills into the open and apply them to conflict resolution. Integration is, indeed, not easy; nor is it very exciting. It leaves no clear-cut winner or loser. There is no feeling of victory or conquest. For people who prefer to fight, a convincing victory -- or a decisive defeat -- is far more interesting than integration.

Follett also notes that integration is difficult to achieve at an intellectual level because integration begins only when specific actions have to be taken. Disagreements frequently disappear when theorizing ends and some definite action is proposed.

Perhaps the biggest obstacle to the achievement of integration is the lack of training in how to cooperate with others in the solution of mutual problems. Too often, parties in a conflict cling to self-interest, prejudices, and routines rather than approaching a conflict ready and able to work with others to find a solution. In stressing collaboration, however, Follett does not advocate abandoning one's own interests. As a case in point, she relates the story of a friend who once said to her in a gush of enthusiasm, "Open-mindedness is the whole thing, isn't it?" (Follett, 1995, p. 85). To this query, Follett responded in the negative. True integration of interest requires that one hold just as much respect for his or her own views as for the views of others and maintaining those views until convinced by the weight of argument to change them. "Mushy people are no more good at [integration] than stubborn people" (Follett, 1995, p. 85). Hold to your interests and opinions until your mind is changed, says Follett, but always be ready to consider new information.

Conflict and Educational Leadership

One thing is clear from Follett's discussion of conflict: A successful leader must be an adroit manager of conflict. Schools are as likely to be scenes of conflict as any other organization, perhaps more so, and principals must know how to manage conflict effectively. Principals sometimes refuse to acknowledge that conflicts exist in their schools or regard it as a negative reflection on their own leadership abilities. Neither position is correct or beneficial to the long-term health of schools. Follett assumed correctly that conflict is a normal part of organizational life and she laid out a process to guide principals in dealing with it. That process is both collaborative and democratic in that it recognizes the existence of competing interests but strives for their integration into a new common interest that builds unity while preserving legitimate differences. Managing conflict in this win-win manner (to borrow Fisher and Ury's [1983] term) takes skill, imagination, and courage. Therefore, effective principals acknowledge the existence of conflict and engage it in ways that contribute to the growth of everyone in the school. Good principals manage conflict skillfully and their schools become stronger places in which both children and adults learn.

Gender and Conflict Management

Mary Parker Follett never referred to herself as a *feminist* nor is she regarded as one by modern feminist theorists who use many of her ideas without realizing the identity of their author (Mansbridge, 1998). Consequently, the issue of whether men or women are better able to use her approach to conflict management probably never presented itself to Follett. The issue is one for our own time. The research base supporting gender differences in the way men and women lead is substantial and indicates that women tend to adopt a more consultative approach to leadership than do men. Does that tendency translate into a predisposition on the part of women to be better at conflict resolution than men? Not necessarily. Indeed, the determining factor in adopting a confrontational or non-confrontational approach to conflict in an organizational setting may be training rather than gender (McFarland & Culp, 1992). Follett herself believed that a lack of training was the greatest obstacle to a manager's use of integration to resolve conflict in the work place. Without specific training, variations in communication styles and personalities may impel men and women to approach organizational conflict differently (Bonaguro & Pearson, 1986; Wilkins & Andersen, 1991; Zanetic & Jeffery, 1996). But with training, both men and women can approach conflict productively. Managing conflict is a skill ***all*** administrators must possess.

Follett's Contributions

Mary Parker Follett's contribution to our understanding of conflict management is unique. This is because Follett possessed considerably more insight into the realities of human relationships in an organization than were her contemporary American writers on management (Child, 1995). Her contemporaries -- Elton Mayo, in particular -- and others who followed after her held that subordinate employees were governed by a "logic of sentiment" which differed from management's rational understanding of a situation in terms of cost and benefits (Childs, 1995; 1969). In this view, conflict with management was an aberration that threatened the effectiveness of the organization and should not be tolerated.

But Follett believed that people at all levels of an organization could understand the "law of the situation" and through discussion evolve a mutually acceptable and innovative solution to their problems. She held that integration could be achieved through participation in mutual problem solving based on the functional knowledge each party to a conflict could offer.

The most productive way of dealing with conflict, according to Follett, was one that left all parties satisfied and, at the same time, contributed to organizational health and learning. While integration might not always be possible, it is often feasible and well worth the attempt. Follett believed that achieving integration of interests requires a willingness to think outside the box to develop new alternatives. She also recognized that it is important to understand the internal process of a conflict in order to deal with it constructively. Her concept of circular behavior recognizes the fact that parties to a conflict contribute both to the development of the conflict itself and to the evolution of a solution. She also understood that a conflict situation was fluid. One has to be alert to the possibility that the parties to the conflict might well realign and reevaluate their interests during the conflict. Finally, Follett understood that people must be trained to work collaboratively in seeking solutions to mutual problems. She knew that real integration of interests required not only an understanding of our own interests, but the interests of others as well, and that it was necessary to maintain our own position until convinced by the weight of argument that they needed to be changed. Neither compliant people nor stubborn ones were more adept at achieving integration. Only those who listened and who were open to the construction of new and more productive relationships were on the right track.

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Chapter 4

Characteristics of Effective Women School Leaders

Jean M. Haar

> *For it is women who appear to intuitively know not only what is required to create and maintain a learning organization, but also how to actually do it.*

Leading A Learning Organization

Schools as learning organizations present educators with numerous opportunities. Those who take advantage of the opportunities will find themselves involved in a process that strengthens learning for students as well as adults. As noted by Barth, "In a community of learners, adults and children learn simultaneously and in the same place to think critically and analytically and to solve problems that are important to them. In a community of learners, learning is endemic and mutually visible" (1990, p. 43).

Communities of learners are committed to discovering and providing conditions that elicit and support human learning, including (a) a higher level of collegiality, (b) a place teeming with frequent, helpful personal and professional interactions, (c) a fostered climate of risk taking, (d) adults who genuinely want to be there, and (e) a profound respect for and encouragement of diversity (Barth, 1990, p. 9). These communities of learners work from the following assumptions:

1. Schools have the capacity to improve themselves, if the conditions are right. A major responsibility of those outside the schools is to help provide these conditions for those inside.
2. When the need and the purpose are there, when the conditions are right, adults and students alike learn and each energizes and contributes to the learning of the other.
3. What needs to be improved about schools is their culture, the quality of interpersonal relationships, and the nature and quality of learning experiences.
4. School improvement is an effort to determine and provide, from without and within, conditions under which the adults and youngsters who inhabit schools will promote and sustain learning among themselves (Barth, 1990, p. 45).

Leading a learning organization is a daunting yet challenging experience. The opportunity to provide the type of leadership needed to establish a strong learning community is an opportunity more women educators need to embrace. For it is women who appear to intuitively know not only what is required to create and maintain a learning organization, but also how to actually do it. In order to establish a strong learning community, there needs to be a sense of trust and encouragement. There also needs to exist an understanding and appreciation for learning. Identified characteristics of women leaders match the needs of a learning organization: "empowerment, openness, trust, ongoing education, compassion and understanding" (Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992, p. 89).

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The Study

Purpose

The purpose of my original study was to describe how the professional leadership development activities of four high school principals have shaped their school cultures. For the purposes of this publication, I have extracted data collected on the two female high school principals involved in my original study. Based on this data, a significant connection can be made between the leadership of these two female principals and the attitudes, behaviors, and actions of effective women leaders as described by Aburdene and Naisbitt (1992).

Research Methods

A mixed methods approach was used. The qualitative component of the study consisted of interviewing four principals from four different school districts and twelve teachers, three from each school district. Participants were interviewed separately at their respective school sites. The quantitative component of the study was the Leadership Practices Inventory developed by Kouzes and Posner (1995), which was administered to the four principals to measure their leadership behaviors.

Selection of the Subjects

Reputational-sampling was used to identify and select successful principals as participants (Schumaker & McMillian, 1993). As a former principal and member of the South Dakota Association of Secondary School Principals (SDASSP), I formulated a list of secondary principals known for their leadership skills. I limited the list to five male principals and five female principals with the intent that I would interview two principals of each gender. Once I identified ten possible subjects, I consulted with five secondary principals who were members of SDASSP and familiar with the principals. I used those principals' input to identify the four I asked to be involved in the study. The four principals were contacted and agreed to participate.

Three teachers from each school site were also selected. The superintendents from each school compiled a list of seven teachers, based on their reputations as strong teachers and teachers knowledgeable about their principals' leadership ability. From the list of seven, I randomly selected three. The selected teachers were contacted by email with an explanation of the study and a request for their participation. Twelve teachers -- three from each site -- agreed to participate in the study.

Data Collection

Data collection occurred through the administration of the Leadership Practices Inventory and through interviews. The Leadership Practices Inventory was distributed, collected, and analyzed before interviews were conducted. The results of the inventory were shared and discussed with the principals during the interviews. Interviews were conducted at the high schools and were approximately one to two hours in length. The principals and the teachers were asked similar interview questions in three categories: professional development, leadership, and school culture.

Findings

This article focuses on the qualitative findings for the two female principals; findings that demonstrate the characteristics of effective women school leaders. The principals were given the pseudonyms of *Margaret* and *Shannon.*

According to Aburdene and Naisbitt (1992), "The word most used to describe women's leadership is 'empowerment'"(p. 93). Kouzes and Posner (1995) describe empowerment as "enabling others to act" (p. 12) and further state that leaders who enable others to act

> ...foster collaboration and build spirited teams. They actively involve others. Leaders understand that mutual respect is what sustains

> extraordinary efforts; they strive to create an atmosphere of trust and human dignity. They strengthen others by sharing information and providing choice. They give their own power away, making each person feel capable and powerful (p. 318).

Both Margaret and Shannon worked to empower their staff and students. For instance, one of Margaret's teachers commented, "Margaret empowers people to lead. You know she is the captain of the ship; but, at the same time, she's not afraid to empower other people to lead.... She has a lot of people doing different things, and she has given people the time, resources, and opportunities to do what needs to be done." Another example of Margaret's willingness to empower the members of the school community resulted from a less then ideal situation that occurred during the Homecoming talent show. Margaret wanted to discuss how the problem could be avoided the following year. According to one of Margaret's teachers, "The week after Homecoming, she had teachers in. She brought in students who had been at the show -- students who had emceed, students who helped organize the show, and students who had had problems in the audience. She put together a committee [of teachers and students] and we talked about it while it was fresh in our minds."

Shannon's empowerment of teachers is demonstrated by her collaborative efforts. One of her teachers commented, "She gives ownership to the staff as far as making collective decisions.... [When she has an idea] she proposes it, lets us think about it and come to her with any questions, and then we meet again a week later to discuss it." Shannon described her process as follows: "Sometimes I know we need a change, but I don't know what the change ought to be. So I say to the staff, 'This is what I see. We need to figure out something that'll make this work better.' In those situations, they help me build a solution from the bottom up. Other times, I have an idea for how I think we could do something. Then it is a different process of presenting the idea and working to get their buy-in to an idea I have already developed."

Margaret and Shannon also displayed a sense of openness -- another identified characteristic of women leadership. As noted by one teacher, "Margaret is wide open to different programs and ideas." Another teacher stated, "She is more than willing to listen to an idea and see where that idea might go." The third teacher commented, "If you can show her how your idea will benefit students, she is your biggest advocate."

Shannon also appeared open to new ideas. One teacher stated, "She is game for looking into anything that is better for kids. She likes to look at different things and different ideas." In agreement, another teacher noted, "She is always looking for ways to benefit the kids and to expand opportunities for them."

Three additional characteristics of female leaders are trust, compassion, and understanding (Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992). These three attributes can be observed in Margaret and Shannon through various comments and examples. At times, the three characteristics are exhibited in a single example. For instance, Shannon demonstrated all three when she met with the Student Council at the beginning of her principalship: "I am proud of the relationship I have with the kids. They see me as an advocate. If they get into trouble, they will come tell me.... The trust started before I even started working here. I met with the Student Council in the summer. At that first meeting, I asked them a lot of hard questions: What is good about our school? What are you most proud of? If you could change something, what would you change? Do you have a concern about any segment of the population? Right away they could see I was asking questions that could lead to change."

Shannon also demonstrated her compassion and understanding by approaching discipline in a more respectful, positive manner: "The first thing I did was get rid of the old discipline plan. I replaced it with five expectations. So we don't talk about 'you can't do this, you can't do that.' What we talk about is, 'We expect you to be honest. We expect you to be kind. We expect you to do your personal best.' And when I talk to the kids about that, I don't say this is just for kids. This is for everybody in this building." Shannon's teachers also noted her compassion: "She cares about you as a person, both personally and professionally. She always makes a point to say things to encourage you and to make you feel good about what you are doing."

Margaret's teachers also were appreciative of the trust, compassion, and understanding demonstrated. As one teacher noted, "She never asks any more of us than she does of herself. When you look at her life, she is here -- the sacrifices she makes -- and she understands. For example, at parent-teacher conferences one of the teacher's had a [conflict]. She said, 'Get here when you can. We'll take care of it.' You don't have to be afraid to talk to her about things like that because she gets it. She knows there is a bigger picture." Another teacher commented, "She works hard to make everyone feel important. When she came here and before school had even started, she knew everyone's name. She had taken an annual and taken the time to learn everyone's name. That made me feel like she cared. Also, she had everyone over one night after conferences. She provided all the food. It was wonderful. I don't know that I had ever been to a principal's house. I think everyone just considered that as a 'thank you'."

Ongoing education was yet another characteristic of women in school leadership positions. Both Margaret and Shannon continue to find ways to learn and grow. Margaret used her professional development activities for obtaining new ideas and for reinforcing beliefs and values. Margaret stated, "I have gone to a conference and picked up a really neat idea, brought it back, and implemented it. I use it as proof that I am on the right track myself." Shannon commented, "Professional development activities make me think differently. They make me realize that 'We don't have to do things the way they've always been done.' There are a lot of ways to do things out of the box." Both understand the importance of their own learning and identify with Barth's description of the principal as "head learner, engaging in the most important enterprise of the schoolhouse -- experiencing, displaying, modeling, and celebrating what is hoped and expected that teachers and pupils will do" (1990, p. 46).

In general, the two principals displayed the characteristics that are often identified and attributed to women serving in school leadership positions. These characteristics are crucial for developing a learning organization. Margaret and Shannon also demonstrated that: "Women leaders try to transform people's self-interest into organizational goals.... Women leaders: encourage participation, share power and information, enhance other people's self-worth, and get others excited about their work" (Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992, p. 89).

Effective School Leadership

As stated earlier, the characteristics previously described serve the purpose of providing effective school leadership. Sergiovanni observed,

> Schools also need special leadership because school professionals don't react warmly to the kind of hierarchically based command leadership or hero leadership that characterizes so many other kinds of organizations. Nor do these professionals have a high tolerance for bureaucratic rituals. Though school leaders may be in charge, the best of them are aware that often the teachers they supervise know more about what needs to be done and how to do it than they do. This reality creates large ability-authority gaps in schools that must be breached (2000, p. 166).

Sergiovanni also noted,

> Schools are places where children and young people struggle to achieve the necessary developmental growth, intellectual knowledge, practical skills, habits of mind, and character traits that get them ready for engaging in a lifetime of leading and learning. The presence of children and young adults in a learning and developing environment and the responsibility that schools have to serve these students well are still other characteristics that make schools unique and that require us to view school leadership differently. Ordinary images of how to organize, provide leadership and support, motivate, and ensure accountability just do not seem to fit schools very well (2000, p. 167).

Women leaders can meet the expectations of leadership described by Sergiovanni because, as noted by Aburdene and Naisbitt, "Women are likely to thrive in organizations changing or growing fast. Women also succeed in companies that employ educated young professionals who demand to be treated as individuals" (1992, p. 92). Margaret and Shannon both emphasized the importance of recognizing each individual and the knowledge and skill each had to contribute to the learning organization. In describing successful women leaders, Wachs (2000) remarked,

> They rebuild the rules of their businesses to fuel growth. They possess a laser focus on achieving objectives.... And they foster collegial relationships with employees and clients by relating to these people in a "high-touch" way. They are obsessed with customer preferences, and they have the courage to withstand opposition. Each of these female executives has a wide range of skills in her arsenal that complement teamwork and partnering, hallmarks of the Information Age (p. xii).

Margaret and Shannon's teachers noted the principals' skills that complement teamwork and partnering. According to one of Margaret's teachers, "I don't ever think she makes a decision without talking to anyone. If we take ownership in the decisions, then there is less to argue about. She does a good job of equalizing people. This is my second year here, and I don't feel like she has squashed my little innocent and naïve voice at all. This is our school. We're in it together." Shannon's teachers noted: "One of her top qualities would be her enthusiasm and her positive outlook. She is constantly trying to make things look positive, to build us up as a staff, to talk about the positive things going on." "She is a really enthusiastic person. Not one bit of her is fake." "Whenever we meet together as a staff she asks, 'How are you doing?' 'How are the kids doing?' She has been here for us and she is here for the long haul."

Women School Leaders as Moral Change Agents

Fullan (1997) observed, "We have, it might be said, come some distance since the days of valuing leaders who 'run a tight ship.' We have gone through the phases of principal 'as administrator' and principal as 'instructional leader.' We have begun to entertain the concept of principal as transformative leader or, as I have argued elsewhere, principal as moral change agent" (1997, p. 6).

Margaret and Shannon, the two female high school principals, are the moral change agents of their schools. They worked hard to establish a school culture that was respectful, positive, and focused on students. They were unafraid and willing to take risks in an effort to create a better learning environment for all students. And, in addition to being caring individuals, they are focused. As they strive to create a learning organization, there are expectations of growth for students and adults alike. As one of Margaret's teachers observed, "I know exactly where I stand with her and what she expects.... She is constantly reminding us that we are here for the kids." Shannon stated, "I look at my job as thinking way ahead, and how can I create structures that support kids and staff so that they can be successful. My job is to create a place where people thrive."

Conclusion

"Primitive descriptions of the 'manager of the future' uncannily match those of female leadership. Consultants tried to teach male managers to relinquish the command-and-control mode. For women it was different: it just came naturally" (Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992, p. 93). The leadership of the two female principals is natural. They are who they are, and they lead from their beliefs and values. Their ability to be strong leaders comes from their willingness to be themselves. Their beliefs and values are grounded in solid educational research. The two provide their schools with the type of leadership needed to establish strong learning organizations.

"Helgesen describes women who do not adapt to the male business world but who succeed by expressing, not rejecting, 'female' strengths such as supporting, encouraging and teaching, open communications, soliciting input and, in general, creating a positive, collegial work environment"(Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992, p. 93). These female strengths can serve education well. Women who choose to accept the challenges of the principalship have much to provide in the area of leadership. Women principals can be instrumental in creating and maintaining strong learning organizations that focus on improving teaching and learning for students and adults.

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Chapter 5

Teacher Empowerment in Texas Schools: Exploring Gender Differences in the Leadership of Texas Principals

Gordon S. Gates
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The point is that no matter the various reasons given for the observed gender imbalance in the principalship, the findings of this study show that female administrators reported higher levels of agreement with and practice of teacher empowerment than their male counterparts.

Over the years much attention in business and political science has been given to leadership studies (Rost, 1993; Stogdill, 1974). Based on the assumption that schools are similar to industry and government, educational administration philosophy and practice often has applied principles of leadership identified in these fields to the school setting. For example, in 1983 the National Commission on Excellence in Education published, A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform, which mirrored attitudes and beliefs being advocated in the business world (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1988; Swanson, 1989). The report triggered the current wave of educational reform and has resulted in changes to our notions of school administration, including concepts such as decentralized authority, teacher leadership, and shared decision-making (Blase, 1993; Imber & Neidt; 1990; Marks & Louis, 1997; Orvando, 1996; Smylie & Denny, 1990; Taylor & Bogotch, 1994; Weiss, Cambone, & Wyeth, 1992).

Embedded in current efforts to reform education is the principle that recognizing the intelligence, dignity, and aspirations of all members of the school organization is critical for achieving desired outcomes. Kahne (1994) describes the current reform initiatives as embodying the Deweyean ideals of democratic community. Combined together, such reform efforts alter power structures in public schools and produce conditions necessary for teacher empowerment. Empowerment as a concept is generally understood as being about autonomy, choice, capacity, and responsibility (Lightfoot, 1986; Rappaport, 1987; Short & Rinehart, 1992). Maeroff (1988) characterizes teacher empowerment as being primarily concerned with recognizing teacher knowledge, elevating teacher status, and increasing teacher access to decision making. Although reform advocates may espouse the virtues of teacher empowerment, Weiss and Cambone (1994) argue that it is building principals who determine the way such reform is expressed or executed. Not surprisingly, agreement with the ideal of empowerment and its fruition in teacher involvement and leadership in school decision making varies among principals and, for that matter, among teachers as well (Harrison, 1998).

Multiple factors may explain some of the differences in administrator receptivity to the philosophy and practice of teacher empowerment. One strand of research that has yielded insight into this area is research on leadership styles and gender differences. For

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example, Weiss and Cambone (1994) infer that a participatory style of leadership is generally considered a female characteristic: "Although there was little talk about feminine caring and connectedness, SDM [shared decision making] has characteristics that are linked to what many see as women's ways of thinking, knowing, and doing" (p. 292). Desjardins (1989), Rosener (1990), Watwood (1995), and Krumm and Gates (2000), among others, cite recent studies that find differences in the leadership styles of men and women. Whether using qualitative or quantitative methodology, there is support in the literature for the view that in the workplace women tend toward being more democratic and more concerned with maintenance of interpersonal relationships and task accomplishment than men. Further, women use a more participatory style of leading than men. These findings suggest that female principals would be more supportive of teacher empowerment and involvement in school decision making than their male counterparts.

Do female principals self-report higher levels of agreement with, and higher levels of practice of, teacher empowerment than male principals? For what building-level professional activities are gender differences most evident in the level of agreement with and practice of teacher involvement? To provide insights to these questions, this chapter reports the findings of a statewide study of Texas principals that was conducted on teacher leadership. After providing further discussion of the literature on empowerment, leadership, and gender, the chapter discusses the study's methodology, results, and conclusions.

Literature Review

Currently, efforts are underway to expose the nature of the relationship between teacher participation in decision-making processes and school improvement. Several studies address this issue by focusing on the perspectives of teachers (Hart, 1994; Hart & Murphy, 1990; Orvando, 1996). Pounder, Ogawa, and Adams (1995) report that there appears to be potential for improved school performance with the implementation of shared decision making or an organization-wide notion of school leadership.

The trend toward shared leadership in the public schools challenges current principals and teachers to adjust to new roles and expectations. The challenge for educational administrators in the coming decade may be one of defining and understanding what it means to be a leader. This understanding is considered important not only for its own sake but because, as Wren (1995) notes, "Knowing more about leadership and how the process operates permits one to realize the real end of leadership: the achievement of mutual goals which are intended to enhance one's group, organization, or society" (p. xi).

The goal of teacher empowerment is to enhance the professional status of teachers, give greater decision-making authority to those closest to the core of education, and, ultimately, to have a beneficial effect on learning outcomes for students. Although teachers have long engaged in activities that have elements of leadership -- such as serving as members of campus committees, department heads, and mentors -- new efforts are directed toward a more formalized involvement and recognition of leadership responsibilities. Increasing teacher participation and involvement is not as simple as shifting the power balance between teachers and administrators. How teachers define and function in changing roles, how teachers accept such changes in the power structure of schools, and how teacher leaders view themselves are aspects of leadership that encompass an area of study unto itself.

Urbanski and Nickolaou (1997) state that historically teacher empowerment has not been widely accepted in American schools and, for the most part, teachers have been excluded from critical involvement in decision making. They indicate that the system has rigidly defined and separated the roles of teachers and administrators. "To change that, and to change the learned helplessness, requires a change in the very culture of schools" (p. 244). These researchers also refer to the common confusion of what constitutes management versus leadership and suggest that this confusion has led to the idea that leadership activities are not appropriate for teachers. Working against the inclusion of teachers in campus-level decision making, in addition to historical precedence and practice, has been the system itself. According to Urbanski and Nickolaou, teachers became acclimated to and comfortable with the "hierarchical organizations and conceded decision making and leadership functions to their supervisors" (p. 244). It has only been during the last ten years that attempts to include teachers in decision-making processes have occurred.

Blase and Blase (1994) discussed the changing roles of principals and teachers in school restructuring as related to student success. Efforts to restructure schools have led to new models of governance in which teachers are not only invited to participate, but are also integral to the decision-making process in the concept of the school as a learning organization. This model of governance requires different leadership skills and behaviors from principals. Blase and Blase found that principals who are effective leaders and successful at shared governance demonstrate the ability to build trust. They note that trust is "built very slowly and in small increments, is established more by deeds than words, and is sustained by openness in interpersonal relations" (p.18). According to these authors, shared governance and the leadership behaviors of principals will create schools that look very different from the schools of today. They conclude that schools in which teachers have a voice and participate in governance exhibit a greater degree of "productivity, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and student achievement... shared governance principles enable others to become leaders" (p. 9).

When instituting such change, Hallinger and McCary (1990) caution against a checklist mentality devoid of an analysis of the "thinking behind the action [which] might lead to an inflexible recipe for school leadership that severely constrains the contextually sensitive judgments of many principals" (p. 92). This caution is shared by Bolman and Deal (1992), who argue that each school is different, staffed with people who have varying needs, abilities, and attitudes that translate into differences in teacher empowerment, participation, and decision-making practices. Different principals also possess different beliefs and styles of leadership that may influence the degree of teacher involvement in those areas, functions, and responsibilities traditionally considered the domain of administration.

While some scholars argue that there is little research supporting gender differences in leadership and declare a moratorium on the question (Dobbins & Platz, 1986; Schein, 1995; Schermerhorn, 1996), Bensimon (1989) among others, state that such views assume men and women experience leadership in the same way and, therefore, results in a "failure to look at women separately [and] imposes severe limitations on the understanding of leadership" (p. 144). Indeed, Blackmore (1989) believes the failure to look at differences in male and female leadership promotes "gender blindness" that essentially reverts leadership theory back into its gender hegemonic past. Blackmore states that the product of such research is theory that is false and fails to support positive social change.

Shakeshaft (1986) notes that the literature does not generally support differences in leadership characteristics based on gender. But rather than retracting from the position of difference, she instead supports the notion that females in administration bring with them knowledge of female culture and socialization. "It is this world that researchers have failed to investigate when they have studied male and female differences, and their absence of knowledge of the female world has led them to assume that differences don't exist" (p. 167). Such a conclusion calls for researchers to more closely attend to their assumptions, instruments, and outcomes.

Dorn, O'Rourke, and Papalewis (1999) also challenge researchers to delve more deeply into the differences that may exist between the ways males and females experience leadership and the ways cultural and social conditioning may be expressed in the leadership style of males and females.

> If the female world exemplifies patterns for effective schooling practices, then female beliefs, knowledge, thoughts, and values must be researched, discussed, and shared. Research and practice must integrate female life experiences, values, and perceptions; gender characteristics should be recognized in the preparation of all school administrators, male and female (p. 6).

Particularly relevant is research in those areas of leadership focused on relationships, shared decision making, and empowerment. For example, Weiss and Cambone's 1994 study found that the principals most supportive of shared decision making (SDM) were women.

Many of the ways in which Weiss and Cambone (1994) describe the style of leadership required to be effective in a SDM situation are closely aligned with the characteristics described by Helgeson (1990) in her study of successful women leaders. In discussing the "nuances of female management," Helgeson (1990) exposes differences between men and women. Helgeson modeled her study of four women on a 1968 study by Mintzberg, who studied five male executives in what he called the *diary studies*. Findings of significant interest included the affinity of women for their emphasis on and nurturing of relationships, willingness to share information, and readiness to share power. Helgeson writes that some differences identified between the sexes in the two studies may be a factor of time, since several decades had passed between the time of Mintzberg's study and her own. Over time, shared leadership has come to be seen as the more culturally appropriate form of leading. Luthans (1992) shares this thought, arguing that the early research which found differences may no longer be relevant in light of today's social climate.

Eagly and Johnson (1990), however, based on their meta-analysis of studies on gender and leadership style, are not as quick to draw this conclusion. While they do hold the view that notions of males and females possessing distinctive gender stereotypic styles are inadequate, given the findings in much of the research, they also claim that the perspective that men and women lead in the same way should be substantially revised. For example, Eagly and Johnson argue that in situations in which women are in male-dominated organizations or roles, women tend to abandon behaviors that are seen as feminine. These authors do note, however, that the literature points to a trend in women being more concerned with maintenance of interpersonal relationships and, therefore, tend to use a more democratic and participatory style of leading. Their meta-analysis suggests the complexity of the role of gender in understanding leadership behavior. This finding is also mirrored in Moran's (1992) review of the literature. "The field of gender differences in leadership styles is an area that is still full of ambiguity and paradox. Despite the number of studies devoted to the topic, there are still unanswered questions" (p. 488).

Methodology

A random sample of 500 school principals (264 elementary, 89 middle/junior high, 109 senior high, and 38 alternative) from the 7,053 public schools identified by the Texas Education Agency was drawn. Using the Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978), principals were mailed surveys in late spring of 1998 and 345 surveys returned. However, 17 surveys were excluded from the analysis due to missing data and, as a result, 328 surveys were analyzed yielding a response rate of 66%. A 6% margin of error was calculated, which suggests that the results of the study can be generalized with some degree of confidence to the larger population of principals from which the sample was drawn.

The survey instrument was composed of multiple sections, with two being relevant to this study. The first section consisted of ten items measuring principal attitudes toward teacher participation in specific professional activities. Administrators were asked to rate the importance on a five-point Likert type scale, with *1* representing *is not important* and *5* indicating *very important*. The second section of the survey asked the principals to rate their perceptions of the actual level of teacher participation in their school on the same ten professional activities. Again, a five-point Likert type scale was used, with *1* indicating that teachers *never participate* and *5* representing that teachers *frequently participate*. The professional activities principals were asked to rate were:

1. team-building
2. managing a project within the school
3. helping to design and deliver staff development activities for other school staff
4. conducting research on effective curricular and instructional practices
5. conveying a positive image of the school
6. contributing an educational vision
7. evaluating the effectiveness of instructional programs
8. helping promote school wide improvements, including new policies and/or procedures
9. establishing partnerships with other schools, educational agencies, or community organizations
10. writing grants to obtain funding for school programs.

The two measures -- perceived level of importance and level of actual participation of teachers in the professional activities -- indicate administrator agreement with and practice of teacher empowerment in school level decision-making processes. The validity of these measurements has been established and discussed (Parkay, Potisook, Chantharasakul, Chansakorn, & Gates, 1998). Cronbach's alpha was calculated to determine measurement reliability. An alpha coefficient of .82 was obtained for the ten items measuring perceived level of importance of teacher participation in the professional activities. An alpha coefficient of .87 was obtained for principal responses to the ten items measuring the perceived level of actual participation.

In addition to this survey information, school financial data (i.e., per pupil expenditures and expenditures by object and function), student data (i.e., class size, ethnicity, SES, gender, attendance, dropout rates, mobility rates, and performance on state standardized tests), and staff data (i.e., ethnicity, gender, experience, salaries, teacher FTEs by program, and educational aide FTEs) for the schools of the 328 responding principals were downloaded from the Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS), which is accessible through the Texas Education Agency (TEA) web page. The PEIMS data are considered valid and reliable given the specific procedures, definitions, and audits provided by the TEA. The survey data and PEIMS data were then merged into a single file for analysis.

The descriptive statistics for the sample were generated. The analysis of the data provides information about the characteristics of this sample of principals and the schools that they administer. Such information is useful in determining the representativeness of the sample, as well as establishing the context of the respondents' answers to questions about teacher involvement and empowerment.

Further, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test for differences between two independent samples was performed on the 20 questions to test the null hypotheses that female and male principals possess identical distributions of scores. The Mann-Whitney *U* test was chosen given the Likert-type response set to the 20 questions and given the non-normal distributions for many of the item responses. The findings from this test generate information for identifying the gender differences in perceived level of importance and level of practice of involvement of teachers on the specific building-level professional activities.

Finally, to address the question of differences between female and male principals self-reported agreement with and practice of teacher empowerment, the two sets of ten questions were summed for each respondent. Thus an overall measure of perceived level of importance of teacher involvement and an overall measure of perceived level of practice of teacher involvement were generated for each respondent. The statistical analysis of independent samples test was then performed using these two measures for dependent variables and gender as the independent variable. Cohen's *d*, a measure of effect size, for each of these comparisons was generated. Such an analysis is appropriate given language by Maeroff (1988) and others, which characterizes teacher empowerment as connecting to teacher access, input, and involvement in school-level decision making. The findings provide insights on determining whether gender is related to self-reported level of agreement with and level of practice of teacher empowerment.

Findings

In addressing the study's purposes, the following section is divided into three parts. First, the descriptive analysis of the respondents and the schools they administer is offered. From this analysis the determination can be made regarding the degree to which the respondents can be generally considered to be reflective of the population of Texas administrators. Second, analysis of the respondents perceived level of importance for teacher involvement and perceived level of involvement for the ten professional activities is presented. Finally, the discussion addresses the findings as they pertain to the central purpose of the study -- the question of gender-related differences in the perceptions and practices of teacher empowerment.

The Respondents and the Schools They Administer

The mean age of the sample respondents was 47 years, with 53% of the administrators being male and 47% being female. Most of the respondents (75%) classified themselves as white, 7% stated they were Black, 15% Hispanic, and 2% indicated they were Native American. The respondents had been at their current positions an average of 6.7 years.

A closer examination of the gender of principals by school level reveals several interesting facts. Of the 162 elementary school principals who responded, 35% were male and 65% were female. For middle schools, 75% were male and 25% were female. The high school principalship, long considered the bastion of males, was also found to be dominated by men -- 70% of Texas high school principals who responded to the survey were male, while 30% were female. Surprisingly, alternative schools possessed the greatest gender equity, with 56% of respondents being male and 44% being female. Thus, while the overall picture appears to offer gender equity in the principalship, closer examination of the data reveals imbalances between the genders in all types of schools except alternative campuses.

Of the principals that responded, 49% served at elementary schools, 19% were located at middle schools, 24% served at the high school level, and 7% indicated they administered an alternative school. In terms of geographic location, 23% stated that their school was located in an urban center, 35% in a suburban area, and 42% were in rural schools. Their schools spent an average of $4,400 per child, with an average of 583 students enrolled. The average student to teacher ratio for these schools was 14.5, with teachers having taught for 11.6 years. Seventy-six percent of teachers in these schools were female.

Table 1 provides averages for several of these variables by school level. The data reveal that the average campus expenditure per pupil was lowest for middle schools and highest for alternative schools.

Table 1
Respondents' Average School Data, by Level

	Elementary	Middle	Secondary	Alternative
Campus expenditure per pupil	$3,938	$3,833	$5,019	$10,059
Student enrollment	523	603	792	164
Percent teachers female	90%	69%	56%	64%

Influencing these numbers is student enrollment. Smaller enrollments were found for alternative schools, than elementary, followed by middle, with high schools enrolling on average the largest number of students. The percent of faculty that is female reveals numbers that are not surprising. Teachers in Texas are predominately female, while the majority of males are found at the secondary level.

Teacher Involvement and Gender

Table 2 presents the results from the Mann-Whitney U test regarding the importance of teacher involvement. The professional activities listed in the Table are sorted according to the item means, descending from the activity perceived to be most important to least important. The respondents, both male and female, generally responded with a high level of agreement to the involvement of teachers in: conveying a positive image of the school; contributing an educational vision; evaluating the effectiveness of instructional programs;

Table 2
Means and Ranks for Perceived Level of Importance of Involvement in Activities by Gender

	Gender	*N*	*M*	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U
School image	Male	173	4.9	161.53	27944.00	12893
	Female	154	5.0	166.78	25684.00	
Educational vision	Male	172	4.5	144.63	24876.00	9998**
	Female	153	4.7	183.65	28099.00	
Evaluation	Male	171	4.4	141.65	24222.50	9516**
	Female	153	4.7	185.80	28427.50	
School-wide improvement	Male	172	4.4	151.35	26032.00	11154*
	Female	153	4.6	176.10	26943.00	
Team-building	Male	173	4.3	152.85	26443.00	11392*
	Female	154	4.5	176.53	27185.00	
Managing school project	Male	172	3.9	152.72	26268.00	11390*
	Female	153	4.1	174.56	26707.00	
Staff development	Male	170	3.8	157.21	26725.00	12190
	Female	152	3.9	166.30	25278.00	
Partnerships	Male	170	3.6	155.76	26480.00	11945
	Female	153	3.7	168.93	25846.00	
Research	Male	172	3.5	162.03	27869.50	12991
	Female	152	3.5	163.03	24780.50	
Grants	Male	171	2.9	150.54	25742.00	11036*
	Female	153	3.2	175.87	26908.00	

*p<.001, **p<.0001

helping to promote school-wide improvements, including new policies and/or procedures; team-building; and managing a project within the school. While not as strongly in agreement as with the previous six activities, these principals largely agreed that teacher involvement was important in helping to design and deliver staff development activities for other school staff, establishing partnerships with other schools or community organizations, conducting research on effective curricular and instructional practices, and writing grants to obtain funding for school programs,.

Table 2 reveals significant differences in mean rank for the level of importance of teacher involvement on six of the professional activities -- educational vision, evaluation, school-wide improvement, team-building, managing school projects, and grants. The distributions of scores for female respondents were found to be significantly higher than the male respondent's score distributions, indicating stronger agreement with involvement of teachers in these six activities. That no difference was detected for conveying a positive image of the school is not surprising given the strong affirmative response by all administrators. The analysis indicates that for activities that most principals feel strongly in agreement with teacher involvement, female respondents were significantly more in agreement than their male counterparts. Furthermore, the analysis suggests that for those activities that principals are in agreement with teacher involvement, there are no discernable differences between men and women, except for writing grants to obtain funding for school programs. On this item, which received the lowest ranking of all activities, female principals responded significantly higher in their agreement than males.

Table 3 provides the results from the Mann-Whitney *U* test regarding the perceived level of teacher involvement. The professional activities listed in the table are again sorted according to the item means, descending from the activity that received the highest level of perceived teacher involvement to the activity that received the lowest level. Principals reported that teachers were involved in conveying a positive image of the

Table 3

Means and Ranks for Perceived Level of Involvement in Activities by Gender

	Gender	*N*	*M*	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	*U*
School image	Male	169	4.4	155.58	26293.50	11928
	Female	153	4.5	168.04	25709.50	
School-wide improvement	Male	169	4.0	148.89	25162.00	10797**
	Female	153	4.2	175.43	26841.00	
Educational vision	Male	169	3.9	148.41	25081.50	10716**
	Female	153	4.1	175.96	26921.50	
Evaluation	Male	169	3.8	150.45	25426.50	11061*
	Female	153	4.0	173.70	26576.50	
Team-building	Male	169	3.8	152.93	25844.50	11479
	Female	153	4.0	170.97	26158.50	
Managing school project	Male	168	3.8	154.64	25980.00	11784
	Female	153	3.9	167.98	25701.00	
Staff development	Male	167	3.6	149.06	24892.50	10864*
	Female	149	3.8	169.08	25193.50	
Partnerships	Male	169	3.1	154.59	26125.50	11760
	Female	153	3.3	169.13	25877.50	
Grants	Male	169	2.5	157.58	26631.00	12266
	Female	153	2.6	165.83	25372.00	
Research	Male	168	2.9	160.90	27032.00	12836
	Female	153	2.9	161.10	24649.00	

*p<.05, **p<.001

school; helping promote school-wide improvements including new policies and/or procedures; contributing an educational vision; evaluating the effectiveness of instructional programs; team-building; managing a project within the school; and helping to design and deliver staff development activities for other school staff. Principals reported that teachers were somewhat to not involved in establishing partnerships, conducting research on effective curricular and instructional practices, and writing grants to obtain funding for school programs.

Female administrators reported perceiving higher levels of teacher involvement on their campuses in helping to promote school-wide improvements, contributing an educational vision, evaluating the effectiveness of instructional programs, and helping to design and deliver staff development activities. For the activities of contributing an educational vision, evaluating the effectiveness of instructional programs, and helping to promote school-wide improvements, female administrators perceived both the level of importance and level of practice of teacher involvement to be higher than their male counterparts. While female principals did not view staff development activities as more important than male principals, female administrators perceived their teachers to be more involved in such activities than schools lead by male administrators. Finally, female principals indicated agreement with teacher involvement in team-building, managing a school project, and writing grants at levels significantly higher than male principals; however, no significant differences were found on these activities as they pertain to perceived level of practice of teacher involvement.

Empowerment and Gender

The above discussion provides details of administrator perceptions of teacher involvement in professional activities beyond the classroom. Maeroff (1988), among others, characterizes teacher empowerment as connecting to teacher access, input, and involvement in school-level decision making. Thus, the summation of subject responses for each of the two sets of questions can be viewed as providing two measures of administrator perceptions of teacher empowerment. The mean scores presented in Table 4 suggest that principals generally are very supportive of the concept of teacher empowerment in school activities beyond the classroom and that they perceive teachers in their schools as being empowered. However, variation associated with principal gender does exist in their responses. Table 4 presents the results of the independent samples test. Levene's test for equality of variance generated insignificant F values. Thus the variance between the two samples can be assumed equivalent despite small differences in cell sizes.

Table 4
Independent Samples Statistics

	Gender	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*t*
Importance of Involvement	Male	174	40.1	4.91	-3.582*
	Female	154	42.1	4.63	
Actual Involvement	Male	174	36.0	5.76	-2.092*
	Female	154	37.4	6.65	

*p<.01

The results of the analysis show that, taken together, female principals reported the importance of teacher participation in the ten professional activities at a significantly higher level than their male counterparts. Furthermore, female administrators reported that teachers in their schools were significantly more involved in these activities as compared to the reports of their male counterparts. As significant differences between means can often be generated by the variance in sample sizes, rather than possessing any meaningful difference, Cohen's *d* was calculated for both comparisons. Cohen's d was found to be 0.39 for the difference in the level of importance of teacher involvement between female and male principals. This difference, therefore, can be interpreted as a 16% variation in the scores of female and male principals. A smaller value of 0.31 was found for Cohen's d for the perceived level of actual teacher involvement, representing a 12% difference between female and male principals' responses. While the differences between the genders may not be visible to the naked eye, the above effect sizes fall within the range discussed by Cohen (1988) as small yet meaningful. Thus, the findings of the survey identify gender-related differences in the self-reported level of agreement with, and level of practice of, teacher empowerment by Texas principals.

Interpretation and Significance

The examination of principals' perceptions of the importance of and degree to which teachers participate in school activities beyond the classroom has theoretical and practical relevance for our understanding of school practices and educational reform. Texas adopted school-based decision making in 1991, and mandated the establishment of campus-level committees by 1992. Wohlstetter and Odden (1992) argue that shared decision making is "effective only if they [policies and principles] are supported strongly by site administrators" (p. 545). In sum, the evidence gathered from this survey suggests that Texas principals strongly embrace the principles of teacher involvement in school-based decision making and leadership. Texas principals acknowledge the importance of teacher empowerment.

What is interesting is the pattern that emerges from the analysis. Lucas, Brown, and Markus (1991) argue that principals are willing to share power with teachers in areas that they themselves feel most empowered. This view can help explain the observed means that pertain to the importance of teacher involvement for the ten professional activities. Contributing to the image and vision for the school, conducting evaluation and improvement projects, engaging in team-building, and managing school projects clearly are areas that have long been the sole purview of principals. Trained in certification programs focused on developing knowledge and skills in these areas, as well as experienced in such practices, the principals possess both the expertise and autonomy on these activities that they could share with their teachers. The lower importance, as compared to the previous activities, of teacher involvement in writing grants, conducting research, and developing partnerships could be interpreted, in part, as arising from the respondents being less familiar with these activities as compared to those listed previously (Haller & Kleine, 2001).

The differences found between male and female principals are also interesting. The distribution of scores for the female respondents was found to be significantly different, more in agreement with teacher involvement in six of the ten activities, than the surveyed males. And for most of these activities, male principals strongly agreed that teacher participation was important. Female administrators also reported higher levels of teacher involvement in almost half of the activities. Again, for most of these activities, male administrators reported high teacher involvement and female administrators reported higher levels than the male respondents.

The sample size and descriptive analysis suggests that the random sampling succeeded in identifying a representative sample of Texas principals whose responses can be interpreted as being generalizable. Further, the reliability of the responses was found to be strong as measured by Cronbach's alpha. Thus, the findings discussed above can be accepted with some confidence. By summing the two sets of questions, two factor-like scores were generated, which provide greater reliability than the response to a single item (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989).

The finding of significant and meaningful differences, as discussed by Cohen (1988), identified through this study provides support for the conclusion of gender-related differences in principal perceptions of teacher empowerment. The findings of a 16% difference in the level of importance of teacher involvement and a smaller 12% difference in the level of teacher involvement in professional activities beyond the classroom between female and male respondents fits within the framework of previous research that suggests females are more participatory and relationship oriented in their leadership style than their male counterparts.

Given these findings, the continued preference of hiring males for secondary education leadership positions not only affronts notions of equality and fairness, but also would seem to be poor practice. While those who hire secondary administrators may provide numerous reasons for making a specific hiring decision, the sum total of these decisions results in an outcome that signals sexism. This is in no way a suggestion that the males who occupy secondary positions are less qualified than female applicants. One cannot make a deduction about an individual given knowledge of the group: the ecological fallacy. The point is that no matter the various reasons given for the observed gender imbalance in the principalship, the findings of this study show that female administrators reported higher levels of agreement with and practice of teacher empowerment than their male counterparts. Many others note, and far more eloquently decry, the continued practice of giving preferential treatment to males when filling positions in educational administration (e.g., Bolman & Deal; 1992, Lee, Smith, & Cioci, 1993; Shakeshaft, 1985). These scholars argue that this practice occurs not because women are viewed as being unable to do the job, but more because of the implicit sense within our society that leadership is a male domain. The findings of this study along with others provide evidence that such cultural assumptions are devoid of merit.

Hudson and Rea (1998) found that teachers want the same qualities of leadership in a principal regardless of gender. "Teachers want principals who are good communicators, good listeners, knowledgeable of curriculum and instruction, personable, problem solvers, and who share power and credit as well as seek variety of input" (p.4). Thus is the call for choosing those who would lead schools today as being based not on gender, but on a sound assessment of an individual's fortitude to assist, involve and empower others -- most notably teachers -- to achieve the desired educational outcome of improved student performance.

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Chapter 6

The University of Wyoming Leadership Beliefs Matrix: Putting a Frame on Leadership

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Students have noted that the Matrix facilitated the reflective process, increased their ability to articulate their beliefs about leadership, and resulted in a higher level of confidence during the interview process.

Principal preparation programs across the country focus on leadership as an integral part of the process for preparing prospective principals. A review of leadership readings for the principal preparation program at the University of Wyoming over the past decade includes works by leading authors such as Barth (1991), Bennis (2000), Covey (1990), Deal and Peterson (1994), Evans (1996), Fullan (1993), Glasser (1992), Glickman (1993), Hersey and Blanchard (2001), Kohn (1999), Kouzes and Posner (1987), Peters (1997), Schlechty (1997), Senge (1994), Sergiovanni (1999), and Wheatley (1992). We know leadership has been and might be framed in many different ways. Kouzes and Posner, for example, talk about leadership as challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. Others have their own unique frame, including Robert Evans who writes about the authentic leader as an individual who understands and respects the human condition, readiness levels for change, and situational leadership styles. Due to the number of leadership frames and concepts, it can be challenging for the prospective principal to create a conceptual foundation or framework on which to think about the complexity of leadership.

Conceptualization of the UW Leadership Beliefs Matrix

The impetus for creating a leadership matrix was initiated at the University of Wyoming (UW) through conversations in 1999 with undergraduate students in the UW College of Education after the faculty and instructors struggled to promote students' thinking and reflecting about teaching beliefs. As the students completed their teacher preparation program and prepared to enter the job market, they were challenged to categorize their teaching beliefs on a matrix developed by the college faculty and instructors following discussions about important teaching beliefs or categories. The beliefs were listed in topical fashion and represented discussion areas the students would be able to articulate. The students appreciated the reflective value of the exercise, as it allowed them to sort through beliefs and organize their thinking relative to those beliefs. The belief matrices were a source of reflection for the students as they prepared for job

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interviews and students referenced the matrices during the interview process. Personnel directors and principals reported that the teaching beliefs matrix was an outstanding tool used by prospective teachers in the interview process. Many felt the matrix set the interview apart from the norm and provided a more telling description of the candidate. Also, the candidates appeared to be more confident in their answers.

Based on these positive results, the authors realized that the matrix concept could greatly benefit graduate students in UW's principal preparation program. Instead of teaching beliefs, leadership beliefs would be identified; thus helping the prospective principals conceptualize their beliefs about leadership.

The Leadership Matrix as a Tool for Preparing Principals

In the first semester of the UW principal preparation program, students describe their personal and professional beliefs about leadership. The beliefs become a part of their platform, which also includes their personal and professional values and mission. The Leadership Matrix is used as a component of the platform to provide a mental and visual framework to help aspiring principals organize their leadership beliefs. The students receive a matrix that includes only headings representing main leadership categories. These categories were identified by the department faculty and represent the five UW program life roles of the principal: direction setter, organizational manager, personnel empowerer, instructional leader, and communicator. The students complete the matrix by listing topical leadership beliefs, just as the teacher preparation students did with beliefs about teaching. Each Leadership Matrix box encourages the student to identify topical beliefs related to categories such as: Philosophy of Education, Philosophy of Leadership, Direction Setting, Organizational Management, Teaching and Learning, Selection and Supervision, Communication, Personnel Empowerer, Technology, Staff Development, Mission/Vision, Evaluation, Relationships, and Personal Skills. Students may add their own categories as well as delete categories to individualize the Matrix. The notion of a mental organizer assists the aspiring principal in addressing leadership beliefs in a concrete form, which may be helpful in an interview setting. The following is an example of a Leadership Matrix.

Sample Leadership Beliefs Matrix

Philosophy & Guiding Principles *Strong Faith *Love for all *Honest *Caring *Learning for all *Sense of humor *Risk taker *Expect excellence *Maintain open communication	**Organizational Management** *Site Based *Empowering Environment *Concise *Flexible *Consistent *Effective *Shared Vision *Involve all Stakeholders	**Supervision** *Differentiated *80/20 Rule *Formal/Informal *Supportive *Collaborative *Action Research *Selection *Life long learner *Risk taker *Passionate *Communicates clearly
Teaching, Learning, & Technology *Student Centered *Action Research *Differentiated *Authentic *Multi-cultural *Inclusive *Action Research *Integrated Curriculum	**Leadership** *Proactive *Self-motivated *Knowledgeable *Shared Decision making *Visible *Flexible *Visionary *Student centered *Sense of Humor *Effective communicators	**Communication & Relationships** *Honesty first *Integrity *Trusting *Safe Environment *Risk Taker *Shared perspectives *Risk taker *Passionate *Communicates clearly
Professional Growth *Ongoing *Financial Support *Research based *Best practices *Lifelong learner *Collaborative *Formal/informal	**School Improvement** *Shared Goals *Data driven *Safe Environment *Best practices *research Based *Measurable *Clear goals *Involves all stakeholders	**Student Assessment & Achievement** *Standards Based *Relevant Curriculum *No high-stakes testing *Learning for all *Culturally sensitive *Differentiated *Promotes self-growth

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To accommodate the range of experiences and capitalize on the professional expertise of the members of the class, students also use the Matrix framework to recall the theory, theorist, author, workshop, book, or other resource they used to develop each of their beliefs. Later, as a teaching strategy to prepare them for their roles as instructional and curriculum leaders, students list the references or resources they would use to provide support in helping members of their learning community translate beliefs into practice. The students then meet in groups of four to share and discuss their identified resources and beliefs. Due to the wealth of experience in the class, this process quickly becomes a very valuable and efficient way to promote meaningful educational dialogue. They discuss how a new principal could use the Matrix activity during a faculty meeting as a way to quickly gather a snapshot of the background beliefs of, and resources familiar to, the faculty. Students have provided feedback indicating their positive perception of the Leadership Matrix as a quality learning tool.

Using the Leadership Matrix for Job Interviews

The Educational Placement Consortium (2000) found that over 50% of candidates for principal positions nationwide were not perceived by the interviewers to be well prepared for the interview. The most common mistake cited by the interviewers was candidates' inability to succinctly articulate their beliefs about leadership. At a minimum, candidates for school leadership positions should know why they want such a position as well as what qualifies them for it. Well-prepared candidates can clearly articulate and communicate their preparation, skills, beliefs, and goals. The Leadership Matrix provides candidates a structure for the articulation of their beliefs about leadership, teaching and learning, and their personal skills.

The Principal Leadership Matrix should be included in a professional portfolio and shared with an interview committee to prompt a discussion about beliefs in leadership. Local school boards and superintendents should value the reflective process that principal candidates obviously go through to generate and continue to refine their beliefs. John W. Gardner (1990) stressed the importance of continuing to grow as a leader. In addition, organization of and commitment to beliefs about leadership provide the ability to identify philosophies and strategies applicable to school leadership roles. The Leadership Matrix can be continuously refined and adjusted as school leaders progress through their preparation programs and their careers.

The challenge for future school leaders in all principal preparation programs is to align leadership beliefs with practice in a manner that gives meaning and relevancy to serving as a campus leader. Although we have only begun to evaluate the value and effectiveness of the Matrix for prospective principals, initial feedback from UW students has been positive. Students have noted that the Matrix facilitates the reflective process, increases their ability to articulate their beliefs about leadership, and results in a higher level of confidence during the interview process.

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Chapter 7

The Role of the Campus Leader in Shaping the Culture of a New School

Deborah E. Stine

Leaders transmit and embed culture by what they pay attention to.
They also emit powerful cues by what they choose not to pay attention to.
Such selective attention can be a powerful leadership tool in
the creation and maintenance of culture.

Purpose of the Study

This study, with a new high school as the unit of analysis, examined the process of opening and developing a new school, with a specific emphasis on the principal's role in the evolution of its culture. Schein (1985a) states, "We simply cannot understand organizational phenomena without considering culture both as a cause and as a way of explaining such phenomena" (p. 311).

This inquiry began with three fundamental research questions:

1. What is the role of the principal in establishing the culture of a new high school?
2. What is the role of leadership in achieving accountability and ownership of the school by its internal and external populations?
3. What strategies result in the effective communication of the principles of accountability?

Using these questions as a guide, the investigator defined the concept of culture as a necessary first step. Schein (1985a) defines culture as the "basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization... that define in a 'taken for granted' fashion an organization's view of itself and its environment. Culture develops in response to various external and internal problems that groups face and gradually becomes abstracted into general basic assumptions" (p. 6). Erickson (1987) states that culture is "...a system of ordinary, taken-for-granted meanings and symbols with both explicit and implicit content that is, deliberately and nondeliberately, learned and shared among members of a naturally bounded social group" (p. 12). Smircich (1983) refers to culture as something that an organization is, rather than something that it has. Culture, then, is the result and totality of the interactions - and their interpretations - within the organization.

Several other terms need to be defined at the outset: 1) Symbolic leadership - words, actions, and rewards which leaders use to influence cultural development (Gronn, 1983); 2) Symbols - "Objects, acts, relationships, or linguistic formations that stand for a multiplicity of meanings, evoke emotions, and impel men [sic] to action" (Cohen, 1974, p. 23); and 3) Artifacts - "The top, or most superficial layer of culture" (Schein, 1985a, p. 13).

Schein (1985a) states that an understanding of the content of culture comes only through an archeological dig through the layers. "At this level one can look at the physical space, the technological output of the group, its written and spoken language, artistic production, and the overt behavior of its members" (p. 13). Gronn (1983) suggests that symbolic leadership may guide the development of what a school is to become.

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Schein (1985a) lists the primary mechanisms for culture embedding and reinforcing as: 1) what leaders pay attention to, measure, and control; 2) leaders' reactions to critical incidents and organizational crises; 3) deliberate role modeling, teaching, and coaching by leaders; 4) criteria for allocation of rewards and status; and 5) criteria for recruitment and selection (pp. 224-225).

As symbolic manifestations of the value assumptions leaders believe to be important, each of these mechanisms is useful in embedding culture and may help to define symbolic leadership.

Symbolic leadership allows a principal to "simultaneously define, strengthen, and articulate the cultural strands that give the school its identity" (Reitzug & Reeves, 1990). For example, the principal may assign duties to certain individuals, but the resultant schedule may be a reinforcement of specific values and an influencing factor in the development of a culture.

Care must be taken to nurture the beginnings of a culture, and administrators must be sensitive to nuance. The importance of the sensitivity of administration to the rituals and negotiations that symbolically represent the cultures in schools is another factor discussed in the literature (Sergiovanni & Corbally, 1984). The principal in this study had a vision and, with it, a sensitivity to the importance of his peers and the environment in articulating that vision. This study demonstrates the interdependence of the internal and external environments in the development of a school's culture and the role the principal plays in this process.

Methodology

The methodology utilized for this research is the interpretive case study. A technical definition of the case study is provided by Yin (1984), who stated, "A case study is an empirical inquiry that: investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (p. 23). Merriam (1988a) added to this definition, validating its use in examining "a bounded system, as a specific phenomenon, such as a program, an event, a person, a process, an institution, or a social group" (p. 10). Adelman, Jenkins, and Kemmis (1983) described specific research situations that are best framed in the case study format: "The most straightforward examples of 'bounded systems' are those in which the boundaries have a common sense obviousness, e.g. an individual teacher, a single school" (p. 3).

This case study of the role of leadership in the opening of a new high school was interpreted through observation, interview, and document analysis. Observation and interview field notes were additionally transcribed. Documents that reflected the history and process of opening the school were consulted, copied, and coded. These data were then triangulated. Merriam (1998b) refers to the analysis of observation, interview, and data collection in qualitative research as one of thick, rich descriptions. In general, the processes of data collection and ongoing analysis used in this study were based on the research techniques presented in the work of Glaser (1978) in his description of the constant comparative method.

Duration of the Study

This study was initiated in September 1998 and continued through September 1999, a period of twelve months. The first four months of the investigation was concentrated at the district level, with observations and interviews with the administrative staff of the school. Analysis of numerous historical documents pertinent to the planning, opening, and the first year of the school also took place during this time frame. In particular, the "process" of the actual opening of the high school was researched and articulated. The remaining months were spent at the high school, examining the elements of the school's culture as it had evolved, and questioning extensively the rationale for its evolution. The data collection period allowed the researcher to observe the development of the school culture, compare it to the culture of the first district high school and examine the role of leadership in this process.

School Site Selection

Murphy (1980) suggested that the opening of a new school may provide a "critical site" for the study of culture development. This "critical site" was located to address the research questions. The school was chosen as a case study because of the rich history of the area as well as the complexity that its leadership and surroundings lent to its process of establishing its culture.

Sample selection

Eighty-one participants were chosen for interviews: 4 board members, 3 district administrators who were an integral part of opening the new school, 5 administrators at the new school and 2 administrators at the old high school who were involved in opening the new high school, 15 faculty and 10 staff members of the new high school, 15 parents and business and community members who played a role in the process, and 27 students who either deliberately chose to come to the new school or who were transferred from the old school.

The Case Study

A Brief History of the City and the School District

Although this study focuses on the role of leadership in the opening of a new high school, the history of the preceding years is important to developing an understanding of the community that the school served.

As one traverses the cobblestone streets of the Browning, California, history speaks of ages past - of churches, of culture, of grand traditions of a community steeped in symbolism, culture, and traditions. From the beginning, the town struggled for its identity. Families of note came to the town in 1889, when it was a town of promise, but not of great achievement. Culture was important to the town. During the early 1900s, the town boasted many family-owned private hotels that were "sought as winter homes from people of culture and means who desired the environment and excellent services it afforded" (Hinckley, 1951, p. 51). The town was also advertised as a "city of churches." As it was growing up, the rapid increase in population forced the churches to develop ambitious building programs financed by individual contributions.

If the churches were hard pressed to keep up with the growing town, the schools were even more so. No sooner would the founders succeed in building a schoolhouse than more bonds would have to be voted to enlarge it.

There was a degree of difficulty and division in the community over choosing the location for the high school in 1891. A site was chosen on the west side and a bond issue of $6,000 was put before the voters - it lost by three votes. As a result, the high school did not materialize in that location. The next year, the present site was chosen and $17,000 in bonds were approved, the first Union High School bonds issued in the state. A founding member and long-time resident of the town noted, "One cannot overemphasize the importance of our entire school system in molding the character of our town" (Hinckley, 1951, p. 87). This statement is reflective of the entire community's involvement with its educational process.

The first high school for the town - Browning High School - was built in 1899. It was a somber brick building, matching the degree of seriousness that the community's forefathers felt toward the educational process. As the community grew, so did the high school, and a large, classical style edifice replaced the original building. In the mid 1950s, a new administration building was built, replacing the one that had graduated its students for almost fifty years.

The City Today

Browning currently has 51 churches, 1 public library, 3 newspapers, 3 radio stations, 7 TV channels, 1 TV cable system, 1 movie theater, 2 outdoor summer theaters, 2 small theater groups, a symphony, a ballet company, several art galleries and a county museum. The city is well known for its cultural events, including an annual summer festival.

The city places a strong emphasis on quality education in the community, from the elementary schools through the university. The city houses 14 elementary schools, 3 middle schools, 2 senior high schools, 1 continuation school, 1 junior college, 1 private university, and 8 private schools. Private schools provide an alternative to public education for elementary through high school students. The private university has offered a quality liberal arts education since 1907.

The historical roots of the community are depicted as steeped in tradition and culture, with an emphasis on education and academic excellence throughout the community. The constituents of the community (the children and their parents) reflect a community that is diverse, and educated, with connections and roots to its past.

The School District Today

The school district encompasses 147 square miles. The ethnicity of the student population is 0.4% Pacific Islander, 1.0% American Indian or Alaskan Native, 1.6% Filipino, 8.0% African American, 8.1% Asian, 31.0% Hispanic, and 49.9% Caucasian. The philosophy of the district is described in the following statement posted on their web site: "Our belief statements are a public declaration of our fundamental values, our deep convictions, and the ethical foundation for our District."

The High Schools

Browning High School had been the sole high school within the community for over one hundred years. This first high school emphasized as its major purpose, "to prepare students for participation after graduation." This was accomplished through a rich academic program and exceptional co-curricular activities. The accrediting association for the state reported that Browning provides a safe, positive environment where students may work and study. Browning also received a full six-year accreditation at their last review. Additionally, this school has been recognized as a California Distinguished School and 87% of its graduates attend either a four-year or community college. The rich program offered by Browning High School reflects the needs and desires of the community and a strong school district. The school's stellar record in academics (Golden State Exams, Advanced Placement Tests) and state-level competitions (Honor Band, Honor Choir, Academic Decathlon) coupled with the exemplary performance of their athletic teams brought pride to the community as well as continued high expectations.

As the city prospered and grew, a remedy was sought to overcrowding in the schools. As early as the 1970s, talks had begun in the city of promoting the construction of a new high school for the ever-increasing population.

The concern of the district for a new high school spanned the tenure of three superintendents. Under the direction of two previous superintendents, two General Education Bond Elections were held to fund the building of the new high school, but neither passed. Then, under the guidance of the third (and current) superintendent, something new was attempted - allowing the voice of the community, rather than the district bureaucracy, to drive the election. A community group went directly to the superintendent and asked permission to go to the people to lobby for a new high school. The district, in this collaborative effort, hired a consultant to determine the degree of bonded indebtedness that would be allowed by the community. The district finally passed a bond due to the dedication and effort of community members and the detailed planning processes of the school district's leadership.

The Process - Engaging and Empowering

The superintendent stated of the process:

> We tried to work very closely with the community. Their input was extremely important. My predecessor was very involved. We have an extremely positive and supportive community. We work closely to solidify that relationship any time we can.

Understanding the importance of community involvement in the process of planning a new high school, the district leadership created the Community Relations Committee. The Committee's members represented the interests of 81 internal and external parties, including the Board of Education, school district, principals, teacher association, parents, Chamber of Commerce, Parent Teacher Association, and community members and students from Browning High School.

The Director of Curriculum and Instruction addressed the culture of the new high school, stating, "Tradition will be created. The District will strive for compatibility, but still retain uniqueness. Communality will be kept in mind, but uniqueness will still be present." These words of definition, along with the terminology equitability and parity (references to the existing high school) began to define the culture that was forming in the eyes of the organizers.

The literature of cultural leadership defines the process that was evolving within the district, as leaders played a key role in forming or shaping the culture. Consistent with the literature (Frost, et. al, 1985), the superintendent and Committee:

1. Had a new idea for an enterprise.
2. Brought in other individuals who shared a common vision.
3. Began to act in concert to create an organization by raising funds, locating space, etc.
4. Brought others into the organization as partners and employees, and a common history begins to be built.

After ten years as principal at Browning High School, Don Wells was tapped to be the principal of Yeats, the new high school. He was consulted and then chosen by the superintendent to move to the new school because he was known and trusted by the community.

From its beginnings, the leadership and the community together determined what the new high school was to become and what the nature of the culture of the school would be. The connections to the community's roots were the imperative throughout this process due to the town's rich history. This is a factor the community members insisted upon. Some of the indicants and artifacts of the culture were the buildings and furnishings, programs, instructional methodologies, and extracurricular activities. Many of these factors reflected the rich heritage of the community and their desire for an excellent educational environment. The leadership involved the community and assigned committees specific tasks, stressing the accountability of all members as integral to the process.

In the decisions that were made, several factors were taken into account. One was that of the new building, which reflected both the rich history of its surroundings and the possibilities for the future, two of the basic values that this school represented. Reminiscent of the brick buildings of the town's original high school, the new campus had brick walls, with the bricks bearing the names of the founders and contributors of the process. In the minds of the leadership team, the bricks symbolized the historical foundations of the community. The library's steel and concrete structures, with futuristic "wings" that rose above the entire edifice of the school, could be seen from across the parking lot. Through an architecturally forward-looking structure, the library and the things that it stands for - education and academia, which reflected the desire of the community to look toward higher education - reflected the purpose of the school. The issue of security, another important value stressed by the community, was also met in the manifestation of the buildings as the gates of the campus securely enclosed these structures, surrounding them with 24-hour cameras. This building was the community's vision and perception of itself, with historical roots that met the requirements of a technological world in a secure environment.

Degree of Freedom

For an outsider to understand how the new school culture was formed, it is first necessary to determine the degree of freedom that was conveyed from the district leadership to the leadership at the school site. The school district was very centralized. The actions of the new school's leadership, and the resulting progress of the new school, were carefully watched by the superintendent. However, a great deal of trust was placed in the principal selected for the new school to "make this a success." After multiple interviews and consultations, the superintendent made the initial appointments for the new school's leadership team - four assistant principals and an athletic director - indicating the degree of importance these positions held at the new high school. Trust and mutual respect were evident. The principal said of the superintendent and deputy superintendent:

> [The superintendent] is the single most dominant force in the school district. He is a "home town" boy. He gives his loyalty to the district and has the most loyal followers. We are free to say what we want to say. He is unquestioned. He emphasizes teamwork and communicates with everyone. The teachers also have respect for his decision-making ability. [The deputy superintendent] is the second most dominant force in the school district. She is a powerful right hand and is very politically astute. They are both very powerful leaders in their own right.

Prior to hiring the new principal, and after seeking information and opinions, the superintendent made many of the decisions for the beginnings of the new school based on what he believed to be right. An example of this was found in the weekly open meetings that he held for anyone interested in the planning process of the new school. Every individual in a potential leadership role was also consulted in multiple individual conferences, as well as during scheduled administrative meetings. Everyone interviewed sincerely believed this to be true.

One of the high school principals in the district spoke of the decision-making process, stating that it was a good thing, because the site leaders truly believed that the superintendent had the best interests of the entire district at heart and was able to see the entire picture. This principal spoke of the relationship that all members of the administrative cabinet (all of the campus principals and the district leadership) had with the superintendent:

> That's not our boss downtown; that is our friend. Yes, there is a definite hierarchy at meetings, but it is always in the best interests of the students and the entire district. It is a collegial process, but he is in charge.

The superintendent had gained the respect and trust of administrators, faculty, and staff at all levels, as a known who had come up the ranks successfully over a thirty year period - always with the best interests of the students at the forefront of decisions made.

The Leadership of the New High School

The planning of Yeats High School began 1 1/2 years prior to its opening, with the new principal, Don Wells, being released from his previous position at Browning High School on February 1st, seven months before the school opened. His many tasks included addressing the concerns of the community with an open door policy, the selection of faculty and staff, planning and opening the new high school, addressing the mission and goals of the new school, and facilitating the creation of the new school's culture. The entire district and community knew Mr. Wells, the new school's principal, as a strong force. He had been the successful principal of the only high school in the district for the previous ten years, and was a known and trusted individual in the community. His major strength as a leader was in the area of human relations - he involved his entire staff in collaborative decision making and was known for this throughout the district.

Mr. Wells stated, "I provided facts about what was expected of the school and then articulated the vision. The process was held with interest and fear by the community." Members of the community were watching all of the elements of the actual opening of the school, because they truly desired the success for the new school that they had witnessed in the old school. There was a balance of equity and parity in the consideration of all factors of the new school's evolution; all concerned desired that the new school be equal in all ways to the old one, but did not want it to detract from the original school. All of this was necessary in the opinion of community members as well as the board and superintendent.

The district and leadership team, consisting of the principal, four assistant principals, the athletic director, and the associated student body coordinator, set the tone for this new high school. The culture of the school was defined by collegiality, teamwork, maintenance of traditions, and accountability. These words were defined and interpreted through actions witnessed in the opening of the new school, which will be discussed later in the chapter.

While public relations is extremely important to the success of any school, and especially a new school, the daily details of running the school are important as well. Both are necessary and neither can be forgotten. In the hiring process for the leadership team, individuals with expertise in all areas of opening and running a school who were known and respected by the community were sought and hired. The leadership team began to be seen as a unit with members having specific areas of responsibility: the principal was the overseer, with many specific duties; the first assistant principal was responsible for education services and counseling; the second assistant principal was in charge of attendance and facilities; the third assistant principal was responsible for student life; the fourth assistant principal was in charge of discipline and emergency services; and the athletic director managed all school athletics activities.

The Mission of the School and Its Leadership

Prior to its opening, Yeats' mission and beliefs statements were formulated from the membership of the community, faculty, staff, and administrative segments of the high school and reflected the results of numerous and thoughtful meetings. These statements were displayed in every room and every hall of the school. Reflecting many hours of work, the mission statement was a composite statement of the values and beliefs of the school:

> We believe successful education requires the collective effort of the student, parent, staff, and community. The mission of our high school is to create a nurturing and academically challenging environment, to educate our culturally diverse student population, and to prepare them to make positive life choices in a global society.

The school goals were:

Goal 1: Parent and community involvement will be developed and supported.
Goal 2: Activities will be established that promote school identity and unity.
Goal 3: Technology will be utilized for the benefit of students and staff.
Goal 4: A system will be established that encourages communication among all stakeholders.
Goal 5: The high school will be a safe, clean, and orderly place that nurtures learning.
Goal 6: The development of the curriculum and the enhancement of instructional strategies and materials will support students in accomplishing the expected school-wide learning results.
Goal 7: The high school will provide opportunities for at-risk students.

The first goal, parent and community involvement will be developed and supported, emphasizes the priority of the school (and the district) to incorporate the involvement of parents and community members. The second goal, activities will be established that promote school identity and unity, was validated through the commentary of staff during the interview process:

- We knew we were building a tradition.
- Our goal is to duplicate what Browning had and to exceed it.
- Be the best we can be.
- We have an opportunity to change
- We are building our own.
- We provided more opportunities for kids, doubled up the amount of kids who could participate.

In addition to the prominently displayed mission statement, the belief statement of the school was also located in the halls, offices, and classrooms of the school. It read:

We believe...

...successful education requires the collective effort of the student, parent, staff, and community.
...that a quality education includes excellence in teaching, exposure to technology, essential materials, and a variety of learning experiences.
...that learning is a life-long process.
...high expectations foster greater achievement.
...that our diversity strengthens and enriches the climate and culture of our school.
...in honesty, integrity, and responsible behavior.
...a safe, nurturing environment promotes growth and success.
...in a learning environment that values each individual and promotes self-worth.
...that a quality education enables students to make positive life choices.
...everyone has the right to expect respect and the obligation to give respect.
...in providing maximum opportunity for student involvement in the total school program.

These statements provided some of the foundations for growth within the new school.

Traditions and Change

The tradition of excellence was the major element that needed to be maintained, and this was monitored internally (from the district to all participants at the site) and externally (from the community and business). When asked to describe the differences between Browning and Yeats, Don Wells generated the following lists:

Browning:

- established
- traditional

- a hierarchy
- resting on laurels
- powerful beliefs
- clearly-defined vision

Yeats:

- new
- different
- upbeat/positive
- every child has an opportunity to do well
- belief statements unfolding
- leaders emerging - not through previous reputation
- kids not bound by "any certain way"

Even though the district wished for parity, the innovation that was embodied in the new school could not help but yield some differences. The major factor that everyone agreed on, however, was that Yeats must succeed. They also realized that Yeats' culture would be influenced by some of the 100-year-old traditions combined with the newest state of the art ideas, coursework, and equipment. The role of leadership was to maintain the traditions of excellence that began at Browning High School while nurturing the evolving culture of Yeats.

The Dedication Festivities

Tuesday, September 9, 1997, was the first day for the new school's 1,500 students. The first Open House was scheduled for October 9th and the Dedication Ceremony would be held November 1st. Prior to the Dedication, the Parent Teacher Student Association (PTSA) sponsored a logo contest to design the Yeats dedication day logo that would be silk-screened onto t-shirts and sold at the Dedication. The shirts were a symbol of identity within the school - one that would be worn with pride by students. Those invited to the Dedication included dignitaries from throughout the state and local vicinity and representatives of the nearby public and private universities. One of the major goals of inviting these individuals involved their witness of the process and, in many cases, hopefully, the assumption of *ownership* and *accountability* in the schools through the Dedication Ceremony. October 25 - November 1st was designated *Dedication Week*, with events ranging from crazy hair day, a hula hoop contest, and a pie eating contest, to a parade, rally, and football game. The week's events would culminate in the formal Ceremony on November 1st.

All of the week's activities help to answer the question that was addressed through all of these activities: How do we assume ownership? The event participants began this process by leaning about the school and participating together. All of these activities emphasize a philosophy of *We are in this together; this is our school*. Ownership adds an additional dimension - that of being responsible for the success of the school. Community members, parents, the leadership team, and faculty and staff participated by directing and supervising the week's activities. Many of the students were at the forefront of the activities and demonstrations, engaging their parents as well as visiting community members. Through the schedule of events, Mr. Wells was providing a bridge from the 100-year-old school tradition to the celebration of the beginnings of a new school.

It is important to note here that the principal felt very strongly about establishing an identity for his school, and emphasized the importance of the students and community in the identification process. The principal imbued the audience at the concluding ceremonies with a sense of ownership, emphasizing the importance of the parents and the community and their roles in bringing a quality education to the students of the school:

> This morning it has been our pleasure to hear from many important

> people commemorating the opening of our brand new school. There have been thank yous and congratulations for a school that is attractive and well built. This may give some the impression that the project has been completed. However, we know another building task has already begun; one that is more important to the construction phase that we have just passed through.
>
> A school like Yeats High School does not have a beginning or end. It is a continuous spiral that advances through days, weeks, months, and years. We could call today the start of a wonderful journey, new beginnings, or even the birth of a new star. The message would be the same. Our school represents a wide array of opportunities for young people to prepare for their individual futures. So you can see, to this end, our focus has changed from the physical plant and its idiosyncrasies to the people it will serve - the students, parents, and staff.
>
> I hope that you might ask yourself, "How can I help?" Schools today need more parent and community support than ever before. From the report, A *Handbook For the 21st Century*, we are told a student must be a problem solver, effective questioner, cooperative worker, flexible manager, self-starter, and multi-lingual. Even though the U.S. Census Report states that more students today are latch key children, abused and neglected, living in foster care and institutions, growing up as crack babies, are homeless, and one in five live below the poverty level, Yeats High School will serve all students regardless of their economic, mental, emotional, or physical abilities. We need your help and support in the role of parent, volunteer, or friend. All of our students have a value, a future with potential, and will become our citizen leaders of the 21st century. If you have teenage children who may attend this school or any other, now is the time to join with us and *step up* to build a powerful educational program. Don't let your student slip away quietly, out of your life.

With this statement, the principal called the audience members to a sense of ownership in this new building, this new educational experience, through the metaphorical analogy of the birth of a new star. He asked them to join him in experiencing ownership in this endeavor, and called them to action, much like former President John F. Kennedy's famous words: "Ask not what your country can do for you, ask what you can do for your country." Here, without mentioning the analogy, Mr. Wells asked for ownership and introspection on the part of the parents and the community. All of the activities focused on ownership - that this building, this school belonged to the community - and that they, therefore, had a personal stake in its outcome. Finally, with handouts distributed to the entire audience so everyone would have the words, the alma mater was sung. This was to be their song and their school to create memorable traditions of excellence for their children. Ownership was the unifying principle.

The arts were one more area where cultural traditions ingrained in the history of the city were maintained, emphasizing culture as a necessary element in the community and its schools, and deliberate efforts were made to make this visible to the community. The principal was the nurturer and maintainer of the quality of the culture as each day passed. The mission and belief statements were read by the principal and given in the form of handouts to the parents. It was extremely important that the mission and direction of the school was clear to the parents, and the principal made sure that all understood.

The Principal as Promoter of Accountability and Role Design

Mr. Wells believed that the first priority of the school leadership was structure: the organization, rules, and regulations that provide a foundation, and attention to the accountability of the population of the school. This was evident in his meticulous attention to the faculty handbook, which documented all administrators', faculty, and classified staff's job specifications and responsibilities and the roles that they play. This role design was helpful to the principal in the hiring process, as individuals outside of the initial leadership team were chosen by the principal to fill *specific* roles. The first section of the handbook was meant to be a resource for all faculty and staff, to know who and where to go to solve particular problems. The roles as designated were also extremely useful in demonstrating the multiple internal and external connections that were to be forged and sustained by each administrator. Accountability and role design were reflected in the minute detail provided to all of the faculty and staff concerning, in addition to the administrative assignments, the cabinet (consisting of the leadership team and department chairpersons) meetings and locations for the year, the department chair and staff meeting agendas, the secretary assigned to each administrator, special programs, staff development days, and a detailed map of the school. This degree of organization was essential in the mind of the principal, and he provided the administrative structure and foundation for the new school. In his opening statement to the faculty and staff of Yeats High School, Mr. Wells shared his decision-making philosophies when he emphasized each individual's responsibility and emphasized accountability measures:

> Shared decision making works best when a staff can come together at regular meetings to share information, discuss what progress has been made, and look at what priorities need to be established. It is recognized that not every person can attend every meeting; this is especially true of classified staff that have a difficult time leaving their workstation, even though they are invited to each meeting. It must, however, be a top priority for every certificated staff member if communication is going to be effective. It seems reasonable that Yeats have monthly staff meetings for our first year and evaluate in June if they are to continue.
>
> One of my goals this year is to start each meeting on time and end with in-depth questions and answers for those that wish additional information. Each meeting will be planned with cabinet and department chairpersons assisting the principal in planning a meaningful agenda for which you may have some suggestions.

While shared decision making was advocated in this statement, so was accountability. This leader believed that the accountability of everyone was necessary to the success of the school. At the conclusion of the meeting, he submitted to the faculty the meeting dates for all of the meetings of the year. There was the hierarchy of meetings as scheduled for the year (weekly meetings for the administrative team, monthly meetings for the department chairs, and monthly meetings for the departments). The structure that governed who met and when was just a small piece of the intricate accountability system that guided the staff, faculty, and administration.

Examples of specific rules and regulations that all faculty and staff were accountable for included:

1. Absence Affidavits (Classified Employees) - All absences from work must be verified to the designated assistant principal by an absence affidavit upon return to work.
2. Absence of Teachers/Requests for Substitutes - Regardless of the reason, all

teachers must call in ALL absences to the electronic substitute system.

3. Classroom Supervision - Under no circumstances should a teacher leave his/her class during class time unless provision has been made for adequate supervision by another teacher or administrator. A teacher is both legally and morally responsible for the supervision of his/her class.
4. Faculty Identification Cards - Picture identification cards will be distributed to each Yeats staff member. Faculty members are to have their ID cards available when on campus or on school business.
5. Faculty Meetings - Meetings for the entire faculty and administration are held monthly. Notice of the date and time of such meetings will be announced in advance. Attendance at such meetings is mandatory, as well as at all other special meetings called by department heads or administration.
6. Teacher and Staff Sign-In Procedures - Sign-in sheets are posted on the bulletin board by the staff mailboxes. Teachers and staff need to sign in and out of the school. It is important to know where teachers, staff, and students are at all times.

Duties, responsibilities, and courtesy were emphasized through the accountability policies at Yeats High School. Part of the culture was that the school belonged to the community and, as such, every faculty and staff member needed to be accountable for their role on the campus - with an emphasis on the team.

This emphasis on shared decision making and accountability was accentuated in the School Accountability Report Card for the 1997-98 school year:

> Shared decision making is practiced at Yeats High School. Various groups of professionals meet on a regular basis to share information and provide guidance for the school program. Positive, effective communication is the goal of the leadership team. The process stretches from the informal, such as administrators meeting daily for cafeteria lunch with other staff members, to the formal, such as weekly meetings of the principal's cabinet. Monthly, the cabinet and department chairpersons meet to share information and discuss relevant issues. In addition, special volunteer committees meet to improve selected concerns. Currently, the following committees are meeting: 1) dress code update; 2) student academic performance; 3) curriculum and instruction; and 4) clean campus. Committees are started as needed; many are led by principals and teachers. Assistant principals and department chairpersons are key leaders in their areas of influence and play an indispensable role in the leadership at Yeats High School.

Accountability was both modeled and addressed to all members of the Yeats community. The students and their parents were no exception. The front page of the school newspaper contained a *Letter From the Principal*, an article addressing the parent community. In it, Mr. Wells discussed student accountability and student and parent responsibilities, including how different students approach tasks at school, grades and progress reports, and that it is possible for all students to earn the academic grades they and their parents want. The letter shared some specific things that parents can do to assist in the success of their children:

> Parents must work closely with the school staff to keep their student on the graduation track by improved communication and monitoring. Parents can do two specific things to help. First, monitor progress reports and report cards, asking why a certain grade is earned. Second, every Yeats High School staff member has a phone extension number

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> and computerized electronic mail. These are available to parents and can become your direct contact to oversee your student's success.

The letter concluded by offering an open door to parents and students, stating:

> Next time you are at a Yeats High School activity or on campus, stop in to say hello. I would love to talk to you more about helping kids earn their achievement.

The principal's personal phone number was also listed in the body of the letter. He welcomed the personal touch.

This principal continually emphasized accountability, teamwork, and ownership in the school. One example of this was seen at school rallies. Students were involved. One rally in particular exemplified what was important to this principal. The band played as students were seated in their respective class sections. Then, the public relations principal thanked students for their Stanford 9 Test Scores, stated that the students were great, and that "the sports teams were incredible," adding, "great job." As a mentor and a coach, he rallied the students by class years to identify themselves, and finally said, "Seniors, it is your year!" to a screaming crowd. The mascot and the cheerleaders, who both performed skits and gave cheers, then followed him. He ended the rally by addressing the audience and complimenting the students on their school spirit and behavior. The principal was seeking to unify, to mentor, and was modeling his support through cheering on the students, wearing the school colors to "stand behind and build ownership in the school." Also, in the midst of the excitement, he emphasized that academics were the reason they were there and closed by simply saying "thank you," emphasizing the successes of the students in both academics and sports.

Findings

Leadership and its approach to the decision-making process plays an important role in reflecting the cultural characteristics and the dynamics of a school. Schools are characterized by decision-making structures, which normally include senior management teams consisting of the principal and his or her deputies; a host of school committees or task groups; and a school council or governing body that is composed of professional and lay members and is responsible for overseeing school policy. This structure was put into place at Yeats High School. The superintendent and the board, in collaboration with the new principal, provided the structure for the beginnings of the new school. The power of that structure and its connections to the community assisted the leadership of the school in realizing its mission and goals. The involvement of the community in planning the beginnings of the new school and its evolvement were huge - those connections provided valuable linkages from the school to its external environment.

Parity and excellence were important words that were greatly emphasized when discussions arose concerning the two high schools in the district. There was parity and excellence in course offerings and all co-curricular programs, assuring the same academic preparation in both schools. The result was two successful schools - the first, standing on its traditions of excellence, and the second, replicating those efforts and becoming an equal in the eyes of all in academics and co-curricular activities. In fact, in some areas, Yeats actually surpassed the success of Browning.

The leadership and symbolic behaviors of the principal acted as bridging mechanisms between the internal and external environments of the school, and played a major role in the development of the culture of the school, promoting the ownership of community members in the school's beginnings. The principal, whose major strength was human relations, was present and active in all of the activities, from the planning of the school and its architecture to its programs, faculty, and staff - all sharing a common vision driven by the mission and goals of the school.

There was a vitality, an energy that was provided by this leader. He served many roles, among them mentor, guide, model, and cheerleader. The leader was involved in each phase of this school's development, guiding the culture by communicating the overall vision and the mission and goals of the school, and hiring faculty and staff who expressed a belief and ownership in that same vision. The leadership created accountability measures to insure success and modeled symbolic behaviors that were both verbal and nonverbal. The principal valued his school and some of this pride was revealed through his daily actions - picking up trash; leading the pep rallies; complimenting students on their test scores; meeting with California Interscholastic Federation (CIF) officials, the state sports league; and meeting with students, teachers, parent groups, and public service organizations. His actions communicated the values of the school, a school that addressed the needs of all of the students and a school that individuals could look to with pride. This principal was also a public relations leader who emphasized by his daily actions his belief in the importance of serving the community and the value of its perceptions through his involvement in community organizations and holding multiple open meetings for parents and interested individuals.

His actions were symbolic in nature and were instrumental in establishing and reinforcing the culture of the school. Some of the significant roles that were played by this principal in the formation of Yeats High School included that of:

- Leader and liaison to the district and the community.
- Collaborative team leader and member, bringing commitment and loyalty to the school as a role model.
- Nurturer and maintainer of the quality of the culture through symbolic behaviors.
- Promoter of ownership and responsibility through role design and accountability systems.

The accountability factors put into place at the district and campus levels were also a result of the community's influence. The district used a magnifying glass, often examining daily occurrences at the campus. The district was accountable to the community for the best education possible of the children in its schools. It was watchful, yet trusting of the expertise of the respected and tenured leaders of its schools.

Through observation, interview, and document analysis and after careful triangulation of the data, distinctive characteristics of the new school culture that were manifestations of its value system were discerned. These included:

1. A school that recognizes the importance of the community.
2. A school whose purpose is to serve its community's children, providing them with the best education possible.
3. A school where expectations are high and accountability systems are in place for students, teachers, staff, and administrators.
4. A school that provides a safe and highly positive, supportive environment for students and teachers.
5. A school that emphasizes team membership and vitality, with a focus on the future that is grounded in the past.
6. A school driven to outcomes of excellence in all endeavors and whose goals are to produce well-rounded individuals.
7. A school that is driven by the model of its principal.

These characteristics were exemplified through symbols and rituals that came to define the leadership of the school and the school itself. Schein (1986) notes that leaders transmit and embed culture, in part, by what they pay attention to. They also emit powerful cues by what they choose not to pay attention to. Such "selective attention"

(Reitzug & Reeves, 1990) can be a powerful leadership tool in the creation and maintenance of culture. Leaders may change a culture through their own enactments of the aspects of the culture they value that are manifested by the use of symbols (Reitzug & Reeves, 1990). This information highlights one major point, that the principal can be a driving force behind the culture.

All of these factors lead to an undeniable statement that reflects the process of creating a culture for a new high school: The school's purpose is to fulfill the needs of the community through the education of its children; in the best environment, they are interdependent and contribute to the school's success. In this case study it was found that the environment and the school were inseparable.

The results of this study translate into an imperative for aspiring and practicing school leaders: 1) the leadership of a new high school needs to establish a trust base within the community, recognizing that what occurs internally can be highly dependent on external expectations; and 2) the leader of a school needs to function as a collaborative guide and a liaison to promote ownership and accountability in the school itself.

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Chapter 8

Texas Women Principals: Why Were We Hired?

Karen Sue Bradley
Jack A. Bradley

Job capabilities, personality characteristics, and physical appearance seem to play a comparable role in hiring decisions for female principals.

"The truth now is to lose the desperation... not the femininity" (Dowd, 2001). This quote captures the essence of the movie, Bridget Jones Diary, which relates the story of a young woman who struggles between the merits of being willful and strong, and those of being passive and vulnerable. In the movie, passivity is rewarded, while aggression is punished.

How does this quote relate to women in their quest to become school principals? Is acting feminine rewarded? What behaviors or characteristics are expected of women who strive for advancement in educational administration? This chapter will analyze the perceptions of current female principals as to what qualities they felt were most important for them to exhibit in the process of securing the principal's position.

The Study

Distribution of Survey Instrument

In August 2001, 100 surveys were distributed statewide to a random sample of women principals leading schools in districts of varying student enrollment categories. The Texas Public School Directory indicates that small districts often have only one female principal. This may have caused these principals to not complete the survey, given the perception that they might be easily identified. Because of the negligible return rate from smaller districts, and in an attempt to expand the sample, 50 additional surveys were distributed, six weeks later, to districts with more than 10,000 students in an effort to expand the sample of respondents. Table 1 details the initial, follow-up, and total

Table 1.
Survey Distribution and Response Rates

	Districts with more than 100,000 students	Districts with 10,000-100,000 students	Districts with less than 10,000 students	Total
1st Distribution (5/15/01)				
Number Sent	40	30	30	100
Number Returned	28	22	1	51
Response Rate	70%	73%	3%	51%
2nd Distribution (6/30/01)				
Number Sent	25	25	0	50
Number Returned	14	15	-	29
Response Rate	56%	60%	-	58%
Total Response Rate	65%	67%	3%	66%*
Surveys Included in Study	42	37	0	79

*The single survey returned from a small district was not included in the study; therefore, it is not included in the calculation for the study's final response rate.

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distributions and return rates. Districts with less than 10,000 students were excluded from this study for the reasons cited above. The two survey distributions yielded a total response rate of 66%.

The Survey

Respondents were asked to review 25 descriptors in light of their hiring experiences. The 25 descriptors were designed to address the following questions:

1. How important were actual job capabilities? (7 items -- 28% of survey)
2. How important was her physical appearance, her femininity? (5 items -- 20% of survey)
3. What role did personality characteristics play in her appointment? (12 items -- 48% of survey)
4. One additional descriptor asked respondents if "connectedness," or knowing somebody in the hiring position, might have led to their appointment. (1 item -- 4% of survey)

After identifying the descriptors that played a role in securing their employment as principals, the respondents were asked to narrow their selections to the three most important factors.

Findings

The 79 respondents were female principals between the ages of 27 and 60, with

Table 2.
Characteristics Identified by Respondents as Being the 1st, 2nd, or 3rd Most Important in Being Selected as a Principal

Descriptor Order on Survey	Descriptor	Total Votes Ranking as 1st, 2nd, or 3rd	Percentage of Possible Votes	Overall Rank
	Job Capabilities	**85**	**34.2%**	-
21.	Interpersonal Skills/Concern for people	30	12.1	1
18.	Knowledge of curriculum	19	7.7	4
14.	Team-building ability	9	3.6	9
5.	Organizational skills	8	3.2	12
20.	Technical skills	8	3.2	12
25.	Problem-solving ability	7	2.8	16
24.	Finance skills	4	1.6	18
	Personality Characteristics	**83**	**33.4%**	-
10.	Self-confidence	21	8.5	3
7.	Assertiveness	19	7.7	4
13.	Emotional maturity	9	3.6	9
8.	Motivation	9	3.6	9
12.	Stress tolerance	8	3.2	12
2.	Verbal ability	7	2.8	16
3.	Energy level	4	1.6	18
4.	Passivity	4	1.6	18
1.	Aggression	1	0.4	22
9.	Risk-taking ability	1	0.4	22
19.	Acquiescence	0	0.0	24
11.	Ruthlessness	0	0.0	24
	Physical Appearance	**75**	**30.4%**	-
16.	Appearance	27	10.9	2
17.	Body stature	14	5.7	6
6.	Femininity	14	5.7	6
22.	Sophistication	12	4.9	8
23.	Style of dress	8	3.2	12
	Other	**4**	**1.6%**	-
15.	Connections	4	1.6	18

Note: 10 respondents marked two items as being the 3rd most important characteristic and these extra votes are included in the tally of responses (n = 247).

representation from every geographical area in the state of Texas. With 79 respondents, a total of 237 possible choices could be cited as the three most important factors in being hired as a principal. Because 10 respondents ranked two descriptors as be the third most important factor, a total of 247 responses are included in the analysis.

As indicated in Table 2, the descriptors cited most frequently by the respondents related to their interpersonal skills, general appearance, self-confidence, knowledge of curriculum, and assertiveness.

The job capabilities category, reflecting 28% of the descriptors, received 34.2% of the total votes, while the personality category -- the largest part of the survey, with 48% of the descriptors -- received 33.4% of the votes. However, because job capabilities and personality are so interrelated, it is sometimes difficult to separate these concepts. Each individual's perception of the meaning of the descriptors is unique to her life experience. Even more interesting is that the physical appearance category, representing 20% of the descriptors, accumulated 30.4% of those characteristics cited as most important in securing a position as a female principal.

Looking at each category separately creates other interesting images. Based on the analysis, aggression and ruthlessness are not important to being hired. However, the results do reveal that assertiveness, which ranked fourth with 19% of the votes, is a far more important characteristic than acquiescence and passivity, which together received only one vote. While there is often a fine line between aggression and assertiveness, the respondents are clearly able to differentiate between the two.

Discussion

Although the concept of leadership has been defined in a number of ways by theorists, "general agreement exists that leadership involves a social influence process in which an individual exerts influence on others to structure activities and relationships in a group or organization" (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 425).

A "social influence" requires effective interpersonal skills, which was cited by the respondents as the most important characteristic in being hired as a principal. Interestingly, verbal ability was not cited as a major contributing factor. Are women sent the message that men should do the talking?

According to Shakeshaft (1989), "Women tend to use language that encourages community building and is more polite and cheerful than the language of men. A number of studies have documented that in verbal discourse, women are more likely than men to express courtesy, gratitude, respect, and appreciation. Women show respect for their audience through listening, echoing, summarizing, polite speech, and non-antagonistic responses" (p. 181). She continues, "Rather than urging women to forgo female styles and emulate men, then, it seems that we should advise men to watch how women speak and listen and try to make those styles their own if they want to be effective school administrators" (p.186).

Clearly, an effective leader must exhibit specific behaviors to be successful. Hoy and Miskel (2001) identify self-confidence, stress tolerance, and emotional maturity as necessary personality traits of successful leaders. Respondents ranked self-confidence as the third most important characteristic, receiving 8.5% of the total votes, while stress tolerance and emotional stability together received 6.8 % of the votes.

Hoy and Miskel (2001) also identify technical skills, interpersonal skills, problem solving, and team building skills as necessary for effective leaders; therefore, these skills should be critical attributes to look for during the process of selecting a principal. Interpersonal skills were identified by respondents participating in this study as the most important factor with 12.1% of all votes, while technical skills, problem solving, and team building combined received 9.6% of the vote.

Based on the accumulated data, an important conclusion can be drawn: Job capabilities (34.2%), personality characteristics (33.4%), and physical appearance (30.4%) seem to play a comparable role in hiring decisions for female principals.

Limitations of the Study

1. Limited number of descriptors: A more comprehensive survey might have been more effective in evaluating the respondents' perceptions. However, the response rate on a long survey would probably have been greatly reduced.
2. Lack of universally clear definitions of the descriptors: Each respondent's perception of the meaning of the descriptors varies based on her life experiences. As an example, what one woman considers passive behavior might be considered assertive to another.
3. Sample size: It is difficult to draw conclusions or make generalizations with just 79 respondents. A larger sample would facilitate the generalization process.

Interesting Issues for Further Study

1. Collect and analyze similar data from representative samples of female principals from various geographic regions across Texas to identify any differences. Would the responses differ between female principals in East Texas and those in large urban areas, such as Dallas, Houston, and San Antonio? How might the responses of femaleprincipals in South Texas, a predominantly Hispanic area, differ from those in other parts of the state?
2. Collect and analyze similar data based on the age of the respondents. Is age a factor? Does the length of time in service as a principal have any effect on the responses?
3. Collect and analyze similar data from a sample of male principals. How would their responses differ from the female principals in this study?

Conclusion

What is expected of women as they strive for advancement in educational administration? Dowd (2001) uses the phrase "lose the desperation, not the femininity." The message behind Bridget Jones Diary is that women can retain their femininity even as they become more assertive. Standard dictionaries relate the term femininity with what is typical of, or appropriate to, women and girls. As more and more women enter positions in educational leadership, the meaning of this word may change.

According to this study, how we look and present ourselves are major factors in the hiring decision. However, specific job capabilities are also important, as evidenced by the results in the areas of both interpersonal skills and curriculum, and the personality characteristics of self-confidence and assertiveness also seem to be valued. This study reinforces the idea that women perceive that they are not expected to have exceptional technical or financial skills, but, rather, skills in curriculum; however, as the number of women principals in Texas increases, their job responsibilities are likely to expand. Based on the results of this study, job capabilities, personality characteristics, and physical appearance contribute equally to hiring decisions for female principals. This result may reflect changing societal attitudes regarding women in decision-making and leadership positions.

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Chapter 9

Selecting a Superintendent by More than Just the Cover

Jody C. Isernhagen

Since the superintendency has generally been a male-dominated position, there is often a fear that all candidates are not afforded an equal opportunity for obtaining the position. The selection process we developed focused on identifiable characteristics and the performance criteria necessary to be an outstanding superintendent.

One of the most critical responsibilities of any local school board is the selection of a superintendent to lead the school district. When filling a superintendent (or any administrative) vacancy, the major criterion to be considered is the ability of the candidate to perform the duties necessary to ensure that all children in the district will learn and be successful.

When I decided to leave the superintendency for a university faculty position, the board asked me to work with a selected facilitator to develop a selection process that would identify the best candidate to serve as the next superintendent. To identify the criteria for the best candidate, the facilitator and I decided to solicit information from others in the district and community concerning the qualities of outstanding leaders rather than engage in a conversation about the importance of gender or other personal qualities. Since the superintendency has generally been a male-dominated position, there is often a fear that all candidates are not afforded an equal opportunity for obtaining the position. The selection process we developed focused on identifiable characteristics and the performance criteria necessary to be an outstanding superintendent. The process would not rely on gut instinct, biases, or other intangible criteria. The result of our work is a model that can help school board members identify the diverse skills that women in educational leadership positions possess, whether in the superintendency or the principalship.

For many years, educators have developed and used performance assessments with students. Only recently, however, have educators used specific rubric criteria to measure the performance of staff. Local board members across the country are currently inundated with information regarding authentic assessment, mastery of standards, and test results measuring the performance of students. Therefore, when the time came to select a new superintendent, it provided an opportunity to train board members in the use of rubric assessment and also to focus board members on the qualities that were desired in a superintendent. In order to assist the board in developing the superintendent selection rubric, examples of rubrics being used throughout the district to measure student achievement as well as rubrics being used for staff evaluation were shared with board members during the training.

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The Superintendent Selection Process

Step 1 - Identify Desired Leadership Characteristics

The first step in developing the selection process was to identify the desired qualities that candidates for the superintendency should possess. This involved engaging 29 selected board, staff, and community representatives in a discussion about desired superintendent leadership qualities. This discussion took place at a facilitated retreat over dinner so that this broad-based group could interact both informally and formally.

The primary task at the retreat was to identify the most important qualities or characteristics that the new superintendent needed to possess. First, small groups were formed and asked to list the most important qualities and characteristics for the new superintendent. Following the small group brainstorming and identification process, the entire group combined and prioritized the small group lists into seven desirable qualities. These qualities were then described in detail by the entire group and later formalized by the facilitator and myself for use in creating recruitment and selection documents (Dudley, 1998).

The facilitator then gave the board members the following charge:

> The qualities you identified for your superintendent are of very significant importance in your search. Your review of credentials must focus on these items. Your phone interviews of their references must focus on these items. And, your personal interviews must focus on these items. Ferreting out information related to these seven items will be another key to your successful search (Dudley, 1998).

The qualities and descriptors identified by the group as being required of a superintendent and, therefore, that would be used during the selection process were as follows:

1. The superintendent must be a *visionary.* He/she must be an innovator, a forward thinking person, have a knowledge base of the most effective current trends in education, be experienced in P-12 education with some background in administration, and be a problem solver. He/she must be able to apply these talents to the educational community.
2. The superintendent must exhibit effective *written, oral, and non-verbal communication skills.* He/she must demonstrate good listening skills, a sense of humor, and the ability to communicate ideas in a public setting.
3. The superintendent must possess effective *leadership skills.* He/she must have demonstrated the ability to support the ideas of others, possess skills in team building, demonstrate effective decision making skills, and have a "participatory" leadership style.
4. The superintendent must be a *team builder.* While these talents are similar to those delineated in item 3, they are of such importance to this community to be further expanded in this item. He/she must have demonstrated the ability to work effectively with other administrators, must possess a strongly positive attitude toward classroom teachers, must have demonstrated roles in the educational community, and must have demonstrated his/her administrative style as participatory and not top-down (not a micromanager).
5. The superintendent must be *broadly knowledgeable about the profession to include aptitude in finance.*
6. The superintendent must have a solid record of *ethical, sincere, and genuine concern for children and youth.*
7. The superintendent must be *willing to become a community member.* He/she must have demonstrated the ability to work effectively with broad elements of a

> community. He/she must also have a strong record of community involvement in those communities where he/she has previously worked.

When discussing the leadership skills that emerged as the most critical for a superintendent, it became evident to me that many of the skills defined were different from those I had experienced during the selection process used when I was hired to lead this same district. There were words like "participatory leadership, team builder, positive attitude toward classroom teachers, sincere, and genuine." Even the board members publicly commented during one of their meetings that the skills identified reflected the mark I had made on the school district.

After that meeting, I lay awake wondering if the process that we used to elicit the qualities made the difference or if a school district truly had to share an experience with a female leader before they could respond in this way. I do not have the answer to this question, but I do believe that the process of defining leadership skills with a broad-based audience does help to soften the language used in the search. This language puts emphasis upon critical skills such as inclusion, shared leadership and the importance of building relationships as a leader as opposed to the harder language of management style, strategic planner, and financial expert.

Johnson (1996) stated, "Current and emerging conceptions of leadership depict a more collaborative process" (p.12) and referred to a 1991 conference, "Looking for Leadership," sponsored by the National Center for Educational Leadership where panelists emphasized the interdependent character of leadership. Elsa Porter, a private sector consultant, characterized good leadership as an "elegant conversation" (Bolman and Deal, 1994, p.90). I think this is exactly the type of conversation we had at the retreat when searching for the qualities of a superintendent.

Step 2 - Creating the Superintendent Selection Rubric

The second step in the selection process was to use the seven identified qualities and their descriptors to develop recruitment and selection documents. Since the school district had recently adopted a new teacher evaluation instrument based on the teaching framework of Charlotte Danielson (1996), this model was adapted for use in developing the detailed descriptions for the seven leadership qualities identified. Isernhagen and Sykes (1998) used as primary references the teaching rubrics developed by Danielson and the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) standards (1993) to develop the defining elements for each of the seven identified leadership qualities. Examples from AASA's *Professional Standards for the Superintendency* support the qualities and elements selected for use in the Superintendent Selection Rubric and require that a superintendent should know and be able to:

- Formulate a written vision statement of future direction for the district. (Standard 1)
- Exhibit creative problem solving. (Standard 1)
- Promote the value of understanding and celebrating school/community cultures. (Standard 1)
- Articulate district vision, mission, and priorities to the community and mass media. (Standard 3)
- Write and speak clearly and forcefully. (Standard 3)
- Define processes for gathering, analyzing, and using data for informed decision-making. (Standard 4)
- Demonstrate an understanding of the development of the total student, including the physical, social, emotional, cognitive, and linguistic needs. (Standard 6)

The desired leadership qualities, their defining elements, and narrative descriptors for each element served as the basis for the development of the Superintendent Selection

Superintendent Selection Rubric

LEADERSHIP QUALITY: **VISIONARY**			
Element	**Level of Performance**		
	Basic	**Competent**	**Exemplary**
Displays innovative and forward thinking	Administrator talks about or gives examples of unique or innovative ideas and changes that are needed but cannot provide examples of how the ideas and change have been put into action in real life settings.	Administrator talks about and gives examples of unique or innovative ideas and changes that are needed. He/she shares how the ideas have been put into action in real life settings.	Administrator talks about and gives examples of unique or innovative ideas and changes that he/she has put into action in real life settings. He/she analyzes strengths and weaknesses of those ideas and the changes made and can provide ways that he/she has conquered the challenges.
Knowledge base of current trends	Administrator talks about or gives examples of current trends in the field based on best practice research.	Administrator talks about and gives examples in their own setting of current trends or best practice research that has been employed.	Administrator talks about and gives examples of ways to solve problems in their own setting by using best practice research to support implementation and solve the identified problem.
Demonstrates extensive experiences in education and problem solving.	Administrator provides limited information and suggestions for how he/she solves a problem in his/her setting.	Administrator provides a specific process for problem solving that he/she uses regularly. This process is somewhat consistent with the mission of the district. He/she cites experiences that he/she has faced in problem solving during their career and in different settings.	Administrator provides a specific process for problem solving that he/she uses regularly. This process is always consistent with the mission and policies of the district. He/she cites experiences that he/she has faced during their career in different settings and can share personal growth in problem solving.
Initiates and manages the change process in different contexts.	Administrator displays limited knowledge and experiences with the change process in schools, districts or community settings.	Administrator displays extensive knowledge and experience with the change process in schools, districts or community settings. He/she can provide specific process used and obstacles.	Administrator displays extensive knowledge and experience with the change process in many settings. He/she understands and shares ways to address political forces both positive and negative that surround a specific change process used.
Develop a shared vision that focuses on teaching and learning in many different settings	Administrators share a vision of teaching and learning but cannot clearly articulate how that has been developed or shared collectively.	Administrator facilitates the development of a vision with all facets of the district and community. This vision is future oriented and based on teaching and learning.	Administrator facilitates the development of a vision with all facets of the district and community that is future oriented and based on teaching and learning. He/she understands and can articulate how the shared vision will be implemented and how it relates to the current goals and plans of the district.

Rubric. The seven rubrics provided board members an opportunity to reflect on the many different aspects of leadership and to narrow the candidate field to those possessing the greatest number and intensity of leadership qualities that they desired. Presented below is an example of one of the seven rubrics developed for the selection process.

Step 3 - Evaluating the Applicants

The third step in the selection process was to evaluate the materials submitted by applicants and decide who would move on to the interview process. Each applicant's materials were reviewed and scored by each board member against the elements included in the seven rubrics. A similar process was used when talking with applicants' references. An interesting outcome of the rubric was that even during informal conversations over lunch or dinner, board and community members couched the conversations within the rubric criteria. This process enabled board members to focus upon the qualities and elements that they thought were needed in order for a superintendent to be successful in the school district. The rubrics also provided a common language for all of the parties involved in the selection process and allowed them to discuss the candidates productively.

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Step 4 - Developing the Interview Questions and Conducting the Interviews

The fourth step in the process was to match the qualities and elements identified in the Superintendent Selection Rubric with the questions to be used in the formal interview with the board. Board members were asked to identify specific topics or items that they would like included in the interview questions and, based on this information, questions were formulated. The proposed questions were then returned to the board members for their review and comment. Following changes made to the questions based on the board member suggestions, each question was listed on the interview form with the corresponding rubric qualities and elements. During the interview, each board member was instructed to record statements or behaviors obtained or observed in the interview to illustrate each element. An example of a typical interview question and the qualities and elements identified with the question is as follows:

> Interview Question: Describe the two or three most effective "programs" you have initiated during your professional career. Of these programs, identify one that you are the most proud of and share why you feel this way.
>
> Interview Question Defining Elements/Qualities:
>
> _____ 1. Innovative, forward thinking (Vision)
> Behaviors Observed:
> _____ 2. Need that program fulfills (Leadership)
> Behaviors Observed:
> _____ 3. Number of students the program impacts (Concern for Children)
> Behaviors Observed:
> _____ 4. Selling of program to a variety of audiences (Communication)
> Behaviors Observed:
> _____ 5. Motivating staff to participate (Team Builder)
> Behaviors Observed:

During the interviews, each board member recorded the behaviors displayed by candidates that related to each element. The board members were able to rate each candidate on a scale of 1 to 3 for each element listed. A rating of *1* represented that a candidate displayed *basic competencies* in the specified area; a rating of *2* represented a candidate that was *competent*; and a rating of *3* represented a candidate that was *exemplary*. After all elements for each question were recorded, the elements were categorized by quality and a mean rating was obtained. This listing of the behaviors displayed or statements made painted a picture of each candidate in relation to each desired quality.

Summary

Danielson (1996) stated, "beneath the unique features of each situation are powerful commonalties. It is these common themes that the framework taps" (p.16). In other words, no matter what behavior is being observed in whatever the setting, the underlying construct is the same. For example, there are "aspects of teaching that occur in some form in every context" (p. 16). Similarly, one can see aspects of leadership in some form in every context.

The use of the Rubric in defining the interview questions assisted the board members in identifying leadership qualities in different contexts. This skill is often difficult when placed in different contextual situations. It also provided the board with an opportunity to become familiar with rubric terminology and actually use a rubric for assessment purposes. Danielson (1996) stated, "It is through serious professional conversation about the components (elements) that the components are validated for any particular setting" (p. 5). The Superintendent Selection Rubric enriched the understanding of board members about leadership and assessment. It also provided an opportunity for board members to ensure that the qualities and the elements they identified were, in fact, those that they truly desired of a superintendent in their district.

Following the use of the new Superintendent Selection Rubric, the rubrics were reviewed and updated for future use. The changes made to the rubrics were based on conversations with individual board members and feedback from an elementary principal who participated in the interview process and the discussion with board members. A final candidate was identified and the job was offered. The new superintendent has been successful in the school district for three years.

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Chapter 10

Defining and Developing Leadership: A Study of Twelve Successful Superintendents in Texas

Anita Pankake
Gwen Schroth
Carole Funk

Qualities of leadership identified in the literature,
by successful female superintendents, and
by successful male superintendents are much the same.

Identifying a definition of leadership has been an ongoing formal activity for decades. According to Razik and Swanson (2001), "Scholarly attempts to analyze leadership have resulted in many diverse definitions, theories, models, and applications. There is still no general consensus about what constitutes leadership or effective leadership in organizations" (p. 60). Informally, defining leadership has been a focus of conversation for centuries... if you doubt this, read a few pages of Machiavelli's The Prince. We surely are not able to bring some sort of definitive answer to these inquiries and conversations; however, it is our intent to add some information and opinion to the mix.

This chapter focuses on 12 Texas superintendents' responses to two questions: What do you believe are the qualities of leadership? and What experiences were vital to your development as a leader? These two questions were asked along with several others in a larger study involving successful superintendents in Texas. In reporting on the responses to these two questions, we will present an overview of how the selection of the 12 superintendents occurred and the means used to gather information from these individuals once they were identified. Next, the information regarding what the superintendents reported in response to each of the questions is offered. Within each of these sections, the similarities and differences of the responses based on the gender of the superintendents are also presented. We end with some summary statements based on the data from our study and from the literature on leadership.

The Study

Selection of the Subjects

For this study, successful was defined as being one of the finalists since 1990 for the Texas Association of School Boards' Outstanding Superintendent of the Year award. A listing of the finalists for the specified years was secured through the information services of the Texas Association of School Administrators. Six of the seven women on the list that were still living in the state were selected for the first phase of the study. Each was contacted for an interview and all six women agreed to participate. The six males were identified by randomly selecting one male from among all the male nominees for each of

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the years in which there was also a selected female nominee. All six men selected were still living in the state and all agreed to participate. The individuals selected might or might not have been the award recipient for that year.

Methods for Data Gathering and Analysis

Over the course of three years, from 1998-2000, all 12 subjects were contacted for a personal interview. The same seven questions (Bennis, 1989) were asked at each interview and probes were used to clarify and elicit additional information, as appropriate. Interviews generally lasted about one hour and all interviews were taped and note-scripted. Tapes and notes from each interview were transcribed to facilitate analysis. All participants were assigned a pseudonym to protect their identity in the reports of results from the study.

Data were examined using content analysis techniques. Interviews were searched for key words and phrases that might reveal common themes within each case and between individual cases. Given the nature of this publication, data is provided for the two interview questions that focused on what the superintendents believe to be the qualities of leadership and what experiences they believe were vital to their development as leaders. Responses are presented for the entire group of respondents as well as for females and males separately.

Additional information in the larger study was obtained from each of the superintendents regarding "turning points in their lives," the role failure and mistakes had played in their development, what lessons they had learned from any failure experiences they had encountered, and what they believed organizations did to stifle and/or encourage leadership. Details regarding some of these areas can be found in articles and presentations we have co-authored (Pankake, Schroth, & Funk, 2000a, 2000b, 1999a, 1999b; Schroth, Pankake, & Funk, 1999).

Findings from the Data Analysis

Qualities of Leadership. Each of the superintendents interviewed was asked, "What do you believe are the qualities of leadership?" The results shown in Table 1 indicate that as a total group, the 12 superintendents identified vision, integrity and honesty, knowledge, and working hard (energy and stamina) as important qualities of leadership. When viewed as gender groups, the women also identified passion and commitment and promoting leadership in others as being important leadership qualities. The men offered neither of these two qualities; instead, they included being a good listener and having credibility.

Perhaps the identification of "promoting leadership in others" by the female superintendents was predictable. Notable works by Carol Gilligan (1982), Sally Helgeson

Table 1

Qualities of Leadership Identified by Texas Superintendents

All Superintendents ($n = 12$)	Female Superintendents ($n = 6$)	Male Superintendents ($n = 6$)
Vision	Vision	Vision
Integrity and Honesty	Integrity and Honesty	Integrity and Honesty
Knowledge	Knowledge	Knowledge
Working Hard/Work Ethic/ Energy and Stamina	Energy and Stamina	Working Hard/Work Ethic
	Passion and Commitment	Being a Good Listener
	Promoting Leadership in Others	Credibility

(1990), and Judy Rosener (1990) hypothesized and documented the qualities of inclusion, collaboration, empowerment, and nurturing as characteristic of female leaders. Since the publication of these seminal works, numerous articles and research efforts have investigated these qualities and/or have identified these qualities in the personal reflections of female leaders (see Flynn, 2000; Funk, 1998; Grogan, 1996; Isernhagen, 2000; Regan & Brooks, 1995; Schroth, 1995). Recently, Brunner and Duncan (1998) reaffirmed the existence of these qualities by stating, "...one of the important factors that contribute to the perceived success of women leaders is that they make certain to practice collaboration, inclusion, and consensus-building - elements of the 'power to' or female definition of power" (p. 53).

A bit more surprising, however, was the identification of "passion and commitment" by the women, but not by the men. The challenges inherent in the position of school superintendent almost require that those who occupy the position see it as more than a job. Without this perspective, the likelihood of staying in the position for any extended period of time, let alone being effective in the position, is minimal. Because so many males persist in the superintendency, it is possible that the male respondents perceived these characteristics as embedded in one or more of the other qualities they identified. For example, speculation could allow that passion and commitment are embedded in vision, i.e., that one does not really have a vision if they are not passionate and committed to seeing it realized. We do not really know why the females named this quality and the males did not; however, we speculate that it is less as an exclusion of the quality and more a difference in definitions of terms.

Regarding "credibility" being identified by the males but not the females, similar interpretations are offered. Credibility as a separate quality could be viewed as somewhat redundant given that both females and males had already identified "honesty and integrity and vision" as a qualities of leadership. Kouzes & Posner (1988) listed honest, competent, forward-looking and inspiring as leadership attributes and noted that when taken together these "...characteristics comprise what communications experts refer to as 'credibility.'" (p. 21). In fact, these are terms they used in their own survey regarding leadership.

Finally, listening was identified by the males, but not the females. According to Kouzes & Posner (1988), leaders stay in touch - with ideas, with the marketplace, with changes inside and outside the organization, and with the world generally. A means for staying in touch is being with and listening to others. Had we asked for skills rather than qualities, would listening have appeared on the lists generated by the females? Perhaps. Had we pushed for a longer list of qualities from each interviewee, would listening have appeared on most lists? We cannot know. While only the male respondents specifically identified listening as a quality of leadership, it is surely true that in order to be successful, effective listening is employed by all of these superintendents to stay in touch with their stakeholders and the context in which their organizations exist.

It is apparent that, overall, the lists of both groups - male and female superintendents - are more alike than different. Additionally, as we shall see, the lists of the two groups in this study are quite similar to those of writers in the literature on leadership.

A myriad of choices were available for comparing the lists of leadership qualities identified in this study with those identified in the literature. The works of two researchers were finally chosen for the comparison. Bennis (1989) was selected for comparison because this study was based on his work. Melendez (1996) was selected for two reasons. First, and perhaps most important, she is female. Since our work included both female and male superintendents, using a female and male researcher seemed important. Additionally, Melendez represents an education perspective inside a business organization - the Drucker Foundation. The works of other researchers could easily have been used: Kouzes and Posner's (1987) five best practices and ten commitments; Block's (1991) empowered manager; most any of Covey's works (Covey, 1989; Covey, Merrill, &

Merrill, 1994); Donaldson's (2001) people, purpose, and practice (action); and the ISLLC Standards (2000), to name a few. Perhaps we will use some of these works in future analysis and dissemination; but for our purposes here, Bennis (1989) and Melendez (1996) appeared to be good choices.

In *On Becoming a Leader* (1989), Warren Bennis identified five qualities of leadership: guiding vision, passion, integrity, trust, and curiosity and daring. In the writing Sara E. Melendez (1996) completed for the Drucker Foundation, she listed the following as qualities of leadership: vision, leadership and diversity, passion, clarity of goals, perseverance, kindness, honesty and integrity, ongoing renewal, and leadership as teachers. Table 2 displays the qualities of leadership identified by Bennis and Melendez aligned with those identified by the 12 Texas superintendents.

Table 2

Leadership Qualities Identified by Texas Superintendents Compared with those of Two Selected Leadership Researchers

Texas Superintendents	Warren Bennis	Sara E. Melendez
Vision (M & F)	Guiding Vision	Vision
Honesty and Integrity (M & F)	Integrity	Honesty and Integrity
Knowledge (M & F)		Ongoing Renewal
Working Hard/Work Ethic/ Energy and Stamina (M & F)		Perseverance
Passion and Commitment (F)	Passion	Passion
Credibility (M)	Trust	
Being a Good Listener (M)		
Promoting Leadership in Others (F)		Leadership as Teachers
	Curiosity and Daring	Leadership and Diversity
		Clarity of Goals
		Kindness

While the lists vary in length and specificity, there are a number of similarities. It would appear that the qualities of leadership identified by the successful superintendents in our study are strongly aligned with the qualities identified by these two writers. An explanation for this alignment might be that "successful superintendents share the same basic understandings of what leadership qualities are with successful leaders in others fields" (Pankake, Schroth, & Funk, 2000, p. 11). Another possible explanation points to the notion that because successful superintendents read the current literature and seek professional development opportunities based on leadership concepts, their training and reading would assist them in aligning their leadership behaviors and beliefs with the literature in the field. In either case, the qualities of leadership appear to be somewhat consistent despite the different sources generating the lists.

Vital Experiences for Development as a Leader. The second question on which we are reporting is: What experiences were vital to your development as a leader? Within the group of 12 superintendents, the two categories of vital experiences most often identified dealt with support from family and formal education. Support from family referred to various ages and stages in the lives of these successful leaders. Some stories of family support were told that took place in these individuals' early years at home, while others focused on spouses. Some examples of this support and influence in the early years include one superintendent who told of the difficult work on the farm and the high expectations for work set by his mother and father:

> Growing up, I thought, was fairly easy. It was. We didn't have a lot of money, we lived out in the country, we didn't know any better. I spent

> until I was probably 22 or 23 quite bit of time down there in the country working.... My mother would let my dad put me off to work when I was probably about 14 or 15 years old. I worked everything from field work to driving tractors to riding horses and working cows... so I grew up with a definition of what work is....

Another mentioned the support of her grandmother in encouraging her learning at school each day:

> My mother and my grandmother taught me to not give up easily. They were very influential in my life. My grandmother spent most of her life in the house at the beck and call of her daughter and son and husband. She lived a block away from us and I passed her front porch every morning on my way to school and on the way home and she was always on the front porch and she would say, "Do good today." Then when I would come back, she would say, "Come in and drink a cup of tea," and I would go in and she would have the tea made and she would have a book and we would take turns reading aloud to one another. Then she would ask me questions and she would say, "Why do you think that is so? Tell me what it is that makes you think that." What wonderful training!

Yet another told of the financial support provided by her parents for attending college and the important influence of that support:

> My daddy paid for my teaching degree; he said you have to be a teacher.... He paid for a maid, bus fare, tuition and books....

Spouses were mentioned by the majority of the superintendents as being vital to their development as a leader. For example, one referred to his wife and children as "blessings"; another spoke of "marrying a nice man and having five children" as vital to her development as a leader; and another sadly told of a failed first marriage because of her husband's jealousy of her success as a leader. This superintendent has since remarried and praises the support of her current spouse as having great influence on her ability to succeed as a leader.

Formal education in almost every instance referred to going to college. Several of the superintendents noted the importance of being able to achieve that initial undergraduate degree. Several also noted that it was during college that they decided to go into the field of education. Specific references to particular professors or coursework were not unusual. Achieving the doctorate was mentioned by several of the superintendents not only as a growth experience, but also as a credential that assisted them in being a viable candidate for the superintendency. For example, one of the superintendents told of how not getting a position motivated him to get credentialed in preparation for the next opportunity:

> One of the experiences that I think sort of got me into administration, at least to moving toward it, was the doctorate. When I was as elementary school assistant principal, I worked for a gentleman who was really rather a weak leader.... When he moved on to another assignment, ...I thought I should have been [selected] the principal. And they didn't make me the principal.... And that just really got my blood up, if you understand. And so, I decided at that point that I was going to go for the doctorate and not be overlooked again. As so I did that and I have always looked at that as being a major turning point in my career. At that time I thought it was really a downer, but in retrospect, I think it was probably one of the most positive things that has ever happened.

One of the women in our study shared the following regarding her pursuit of the doctoral degree:

> I've applied for very few jobs I haven't gotten. But the ones I haven't gotten only made me better because I thought, "By God, I'll never not get another job again!" And I can think of a situation where a principalship opened in an elementary school a long time ago. I just knew I was the most qualified and I didn't get it. I waited for the news release to come out; I wanted to read about who got this job and my initial reaction was very defensive. I have experience, I was working on my doctorate, I had punched all those little tickets. The person that got it had her doctorate; she had experience and all this stuff....

Yet a third story addresses the doctorate as a prerequisite to otherwise out-of-reach positions:

> I would say that one of the proudest moments educationally was the finalization of the doctoral program - it was such a relief. And how I made it through, I will never know. [My major professor] probably wondered the same thing. But that was such a burden lifted off my shoulders; then you can get into a club you wanted and open some doors that you [couldn't] otherwise. That was certainly a turning point.

Three of the six male respondents mentioned a third category of experiences that assisted with their development. They told stories of their work experiences in their own businesses. Being entrepreneurs and having to compete to succeed (though not all of the stories were about success) were included in the descriptions of why these experiences were viewed as important. One of the negative experiences dealt with a cleaning business that one of the now successful superintendents started when he was in college. It became quite successful with five employees to take care of all the business. Unfortunately, hiring a relative who needed a job turned out to be a negative when the relative set about taking over the company six months after being hired. Not only was the now successful superintendent hurt by this behavior, but he had a great deal of difficulty learning to trust others following this incident. A more positive story was shared by one of the male superintendents regarding a business that he and his wife operated together:

> For twelve years, ...we were in the clothing business and we had two retail stores.... I was business manager and assistant principal; we also had the business. We slept very little and we worked a lot. But it was enjoyable to us and we raised a family.... I will tell you that ...we were always busy, we were always attending to something, and it allowed us flexibility to be able to make a little money and raise our kids and to live comfortably.

Another of the male superintendents mentioned his involvement in the governance and operations of a professional association as being extremely helpful in his development, while another told of the importance of having a variety of administrative positions.

Crediting a variety of public school work experiences as vital to the development of leadership was an area more often mentioned by the females than the males. The women related how important it had been to have dealings with various dimensions of the public school system in preparing them for their success as superintendents. Stories about these various work experiences were both positive and negative. Working in both urban and rural settings, teaching a variety of subjects and grade levels, working in both campus and central office positions, learning to work with obnoxious or difficult bosses, and even having to drive a school bus were some of the experiences described. These experiences, according to one of the women, allowed her to "be a part of and find out about all facets of school operations." This knowledge and these experiences were seen by the women as helping them to see "the big picture," a perspective they felt was very important to their success as educational leaders.

Another category of experiences mentioned by the females was the impact of mentors. The mentors mentioned were both females and males and came from a variety of positions - principals, superintendents, professors, and deans of colleges. In many cases, these mentors were the individuals who actually called these women's attention to their own leadership talents. Prior to the encouragement of these mentors, being a school leader in any position, let alone the superintendency, had never occurred to the women. The following statements from the interviews describe how the mentors called attention to the talents of these women:

- "My principal called me in one day and said, 'You need to go and get an administrator's certificate.' I gave him this blank look...."
- "I had strong mentors.... [T]he principal who left encouraged me and thought... I could be the principal of that campus.
- "He said, '...you really need to go ahead and get your all-level certification so that you can be a superintendent when the time comes.' I said, 'Be a superintendent? There are not any women superintendents!' He said, 'Well, in Texas maybe, but there are some women superintendents and you could do this."

The male superintendents all named people that they particularly admire when asked the specific question, Are there people in your life or in general whom you particularly admire? Several referenced the influence of grade school, high school, or college teachers as they told their stories. However, the term *mentor* was seldom used by the men, whereas, the women used the term mentor freely in telling about these people's influence in their lives.

The experiences vital to the development of the superintendents in this study are summarized in Table 3 for the total group and for each of the gender groups. It is important to note that not every respondent named each of the categories of experiences. Support from family - parents and/or spouse at one or more stages of their lives - was identified as vital by all of the superintendents, both females and males. Formal education was identified by all of the male superintendents with five of the six making particular note of the doctorate. Most, but not all, of the female superintendents specifically identified formal education as one of their vital experiences. The other two categories identified for each of the gender groups was named by at least two of the respondents, but not by a majority of either group.

Table 3
Experiences Vital to the Development of Superintendents as Leaders

All Superintendents ($n = 12$)	Female Superintendents ($n = 6$)	Male Superintendents ($n = 6$)
Support from family	Support from family	Support from family
Formal education	Formal education	Formal education
	Variety of public school work experiences	Work experiences outside education and in professional associations
	Mentors	

Closing Remarks

In the introduction, we stated our intent to add information and opinion to the mix regarding the definition of leadership. To that end, we have offered information regarding what the 12 successful superintendents in our study had to say regarding what they believe to be the qualities of leadership. Additionally, we compared the responses from our study to the assertions of two writers in the field of leadership. The consistency found in the qualities of leadership identified by the superintendents in our study and the two writers is encouraging for aspiring leaders and for organizations seeking individuals to serve in leadership positions. The qualities of leadership do not seem to be a "moving target." Finding ways to develop and display these qualities will help individuals and organizations to be successful.

However, the strong alignment in the three lists also presents a chicken or egg dilemma regarding whether the superintendents in our study learned about the qualities of leadership from the literature and training available to them or whether the training and literature are moving in the direction of what we are learning from leaders such as our successful superintendents. Perhaps the answer is both.

The second part of our report focused on the categories of experiences that emerged from an analysis of the 12 superintendents' responses to the question, What experiences were vital to your development as a leader? Like so many in the past, we were interested not only in trying to define leadership, but also in attempting to learn how leaders came to be. The information gleaned from the respondents provides both comfort and concern. Without question, the response given most often by the superintendents in our study regarding vital experiences in their development as leaders was support from family. We noted that support from family referred to both one's childhood family, spouses, and sometimes both. There is comfort in finding that something so common and close to home is such a universal contributor to leadership development. There is, however, also a concern. With more and more families identified as non-traditional, more and more children spending time in daycare, and close to half of all marriages ending in divorce, we wonder how these new family dynamics will affect the development of the future generation of leaders on whom we will all depend to guide the schools of this nation. Specifically, we wonder whether the qualities of leadership will change to reflect future leaders' experiences, which may well include support from different kinds of families than those of the superintendents in this study.

Finally, reporting the similarities and differences between the gender groups was an important part of this work. While differences were found, they tend more toward degree than kind. This should be encouraging for women who aspire to the role of superintendent. Qualities of leadership identified in the literature, by successful female superintendents, and by successful male superintendents are much the same. Success, rather than gender, seems to be the better criteria for selecting who to observe, who to seek as mentors, who to emulate. Additionally, it appears that the sometimes stereotypical women's ways of nurturing, collaborating, and caring for others are not female, but are, in fact, critical components of successful leadership. Today's organizations need leaders - females and males - who possess all of these qualities.

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Chapter 11

In Focus

Tommye P. Boyd

Is there a difference in male and female leadership? Absolutely. But to discuss female leadership in terms of "leading with soul, caring communities, and connectedness" is to imply that male-led organizations are the antithesis. We then have a classic example of a non-issue becoming the issue.

As an undergraduate, I sat in a language class one warm afternoon, listening to the professor go on and on about a subject that I have long since forgotten. And then I heard him say between eloquent statements on this forgotten subject, "It is hotter downtown than it is in the summer." When I glanced up, I saw serious faces all around me nodding appreciatively in thoughtful reflection and agreeing with this learned man. What I was feeling was something like that described in an out-of-body experience. I felt that my senses had turned up a radio too loud and that I had been thrown into a play and pulled quickly out of my role again. Had no one heard what this man had said? While others were agreeing with rapt attention, I was biting my lip in an attempt to prevent laughter. The statement was one of complete disconnect... it made no sense. And the whole class seemed to be reflecting on it as the spoken truth.

I have long since forgotten the topic covered by the lecture as well as the professor's name. What I have never forgotten is the comment and the small smile that began to pull at the professor's mouth as he enjoyed the humor in watching a group of undergraduates hanging upon every word... even when the words made no sense. He was toying with us and observing whether any of us wanted to differentiate between issues and non-issues. I learned much that day.

I learned about active listening and about assumptions. I learned that when topics are discussed it is often more important to determine whether the topic being discussed is the one that really needs to be analyzed in order to solve a problem or address a concern. It is easy to spend much time in this world, and especially in the world of educational leadership, working on non-issues... attacking the peripherals and missing the core. Discussions of the differences in male and female leadership can easily become discussions on leadership that miss core issues.

Educational leadership is being challenged in a way unlike any in the last two decades. There is a shortage of leadership. More to the point, there is a shortage of people who are prepared and/or willing to serve as principals. According to a recent survey by the Texas Principals Leadership Initiative, Texas' 7,500 campuses will lose 900 principals in the next two years and 1,500 in the next five to retirement. Adding to the seriousness of this situation is the problem that fewer and fewer people who have the leadership qualities necessary to successfully lead large schools are deciding to enter educational leadership. Long hours and high stress are the reasons most often given for seeking other positions. Less emphasized are glass ceilings for women executives and male dominance. Do they exist? Of course, but only as examples of the microcosm of our larger society. Schools and school systems are small replicas of that going on around us. When one looks at how long women have actively been in the work force in professional positions and

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leadership positions, the period of time is miniscule.

Is there a difference in male and female leadership? Absolutely. But to discuss female leadership in terms of *leading with soul, caring communities,* and *connectedness* is to imply that male-led organizations are the antithesis. We then have a classic example of a non-issue becoming the issue.

There is no one type of successful educational leadership. The dynamics of leadership are such that effective leaders get members of an organization excited about the process of extended leadership and about the challenges involved in affecting change. Effective leaders have the ability to look at complex systems and bring sense and order to them. That process builds confidence in the organization's members, allowing them to see the value of their work, and, in turn, building a climate of trust. When trust increases, individuals realize that they have the ability to work independently as well as interdependently without loss of identity. Educational leadership can be the most exciting, revitalizing job around.

If that is true, then why the high rate of retirement and the bad press which appears to encourage capable individuals to leave the profession? Why is the emphasis in many discussions sexism or discrimination in the workplace? Perhaps we need to focus on identifying the unspoken messages we send out as a profession that seem to keep some from desiring to follow in our paths. Perhaps we need to focus on the changing role of educational leaders and how the job descriptions have changed over the last few years as the public education system and the needs of the clients have changed. Perhaps we need to discuss how to educate a society on what educational leaders really do, their impact on a learning organization, and how that role must change as public education changes. We -- male and female educational leaders -- must find a way to actively mentor those entering our profession so that the quantum leap into educational leadership can be handled with grace and confidence.

There are differences in leadership style between males and females. There always will be. As a profession, we honor the concept of multiple intelligences in students, understanding that students learn best when those intelligences are recognized and respected in the teaching process. We must also learn to honor the way adults learn and its impact upon leadership. Men and women may learn differently and may lead differently, but any two individuals will do the same. Let's honor the differences, accept diversity, and be who we are as we lead. Let's move to the real issue of working to mentor individuals not only to bring them into educational leadership but also to help them sustain and work effectively in their positions. Mentoring is caring and building trust with another individual. That process is done by males and females in most professions, educational and non-educational. Both men and women belong in educational leadership for their contributions and for their ability to model for young people. Let's keep the real issue as the focus. Men and women will never be the same; it is hotter downtown than it is in the summer.

Chapter 12

Transforming Learning Organizations: Taproot Leadership

Karen A. Hays

TAPROOT (n) 1: a primary root that grows vertically downward and gives off small lateral roots. 2: one that has a deep central position in a line of growth or development.

Peter Senge (1994) states that "the organizations that will truly excel in the future will be the organizations that discover how to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at all levels in an organization" (p.48). Schools are faced with the constant pressure to educate students and consistently achieve results. The pressing needs of a diverse constituency require an organization engaged in constant efforts to attain better outcomes. This can only be accomplished by staying abreast of the best methods and policies to achieve these ends. Thus, the school becomes a "learning organization," a community committed to the practice of professional learning to discover solutions to meet student needs.

An inherent, but unrecognized weed blocking bounteous growth in educational leadership is reliance on a leadership model that focuses on the individual who heads the organization and his or her attendant gender characteristics. The ongoing debate of a *male, female,* or *gender-neutral* style becomes moot when the focus is on the "field of influence" (Senge, 1994, p. 65). The field of influence is the ability to create an infrastructure of shared values where the members are committed to the ideals of the organization, rather than to the leaders as an individual. Rather than a reflection of the personal style of the leader, influence building instead focuses on the core values of the learning organization and the goals it hopes to achieve. This shift in view from an industrial to a systems model recognizes the strength of focusing on maximizing the potential of the organization by requiring everyone to stay abreast of change. Thus, working toward a shared vision becomes the emphasis, rather than the personal dynamism of the individual. This devotion to the big ideas can thrive despite obstacles and stumbling blocks, can sustain a staff through setbacks, and can survive despite changes in building leadership.

Senge (1994) suggests that change based on the personal power and charisma of the leader is not sustainable, nor particularly generative. Leadership by charisma can be likened to a plant that bursts into full flower, but whose blooms can only be enjoyed for a short while. The desired leader for a learning organization is someone who can sow the seeds of change to transform and sustain the goals of the organization beyond his or her term.

This leader is a catalyst who serves as a *taproot* for the organization; breaking ground and supporting the efforts of the organization, while tapping into the strengths of the staff through shared leadership (Huffman, 2000). Collegiality is not only highly desirable, but the use of collaboration is the desired form of decision making to meet the needs of today's learning organizations (Ritter, 2000).

Nurturing ideas, building relationships, sharing, and cooperation are traditionally thought of as feminine traits, as contrasted with the male leadership attribute of toughness.

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Though the male leadership style is traditionally seen as that of a staunch disciplinarian, examples of collaborative models in both male and female constructs exist. In the military and sports, though compliance is initially mandated by the ranking officer or coach, individuals go beyond simple conformance to rules and move to fidelity and allegiance born of shared values. Though rules and hierarchy remain a cornerstone of these organizations, allegiance to values and common goals underpin the establishments they serve. This shift from a hierarchical structure to a shared model cultivates the synergy that is characteristic of a thriving organization (Aiken, 2000). This does not diminish the critical role of the educational leader in conveying a belief in a core vision that inspires others. The enduring work and the most profound results occur when individual personalities recede so that the true work of the organization can begin and flourish.

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Chapter 13

Knotting the Score

Virginia Wuebker

Women superintendents are under much more scrutiny than men.
Brit was asked what she was going to wear to graduation;
changing her hairstyle made the paper; using the edger
one afternoon at the high school got stares from the neighbors;
wearing overalls to a football game almost set off an earthquake.

He went in to have his tires rotated. When the job was done, he said, "Now, I think you owe me a wash job. I bring a lot of business your way."

"Well," the attendant replied, "We usually don't do this. But, for you, o.k. Joe, give the man a ticket for a wash job."

She went in to have her tires rotated. When the job was done, she said, "I've been here a lot of times. I think I deserve a free car wash."

"Ma'am, we don't give a car wash with a rotation."

"Now, listen, I'm a poor widow woman and it appears you are trying to take advantage of me, that's what it is." A tear trickled down her wrinkled face. Her shoulders drooped even more.

"Ma'am...."

She continued. "I can see I am going to have to see the manager."

"Alright, alright. Joe, give the lady a ticket for a wash job."

In a man's world, sometimes you have to do what you have to do. Call it ingenuity or inventiveness or cleverness or resourcefulness or skill. These seemingly innate female attributes are called upon daily as she works and plays and goes about her regular tasks. The woman who decides to enter the male-dominated fields of academic or business officialdom will use this "talent" repeatedly.

There have always been leaders in my family. And there still are. The leaders, oddly enough, have been the women. The common thread in the family has been that the husbands and fathers have been tolerant of the involvement of their women as leaders in their careers, schools, churches, and the family structures. The men were not passive or subservient, but were willing to share responsibility and were supportive of the sometimes assertive women in the household. This type of cooperative environment at home can certainly have a positive bearing on the ultimate success or failure of anyone, male or female.

The trials and tribulations and successes and failures witnessed in a home can be closely akin to those experienced by women in the workplace, community, and in our society as a whole. Although the role of women has drastically changed from the "good ol' days" of washing, cooking, cleaning, and bearing and rearing children, the attempt to find successful methods of attaining leadership positions in our society has continued to be an enormous challenge. There are those, however, who have accepted that challenge and have found fulfillment in positions of leadership.

Three female family members have donned the robe of leadership in this man's world and, through a variety of means, have taken their rightful place in their chosen field. In addition to myself, the others are the sales manager of a large corporation and a school superintendent. Each one of us, in our own way, has developed a personality, a course of

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action and reaction, and a method of handling a specific challenge, sometimes planned in advance and sometimes addressed on the spur of the moment.

The hits and misses are inevitable and, as time and experience provide more and more confidence, one is likely to become that seemingly illusive Queen Bee.

All He Saw Was a Woman

I can still hear my mother sending me off to college with these words: "Get a teaching degree. That's something you can always fall back on." She was, I feel sure, hopefully anticipating the day when marriage would become my chosen career. Teaching, nursing, and taking shorthand were about the only other career options in those days. Two degrees and 35 teaching years later, I look back on those motherly words and thank her for firmly nudging me along the teaching path, although her motives were far different from those I began to cultivate.

We often think of leadership in terms of relationships with adults. I soon learned I had inadvertently become the leader of the most important commodity in the world... children. Steering children toward knowledge through firsthand experiences included raising baby chicks in an incubator, making butter by shaking a jar of cream, sending a rocket into the sky as a science project, polishing rocks, and eating a walking salad (peanut butter on a cabbage leaf), a fun way of introducing students to new wholesome foods that ended up being a weekly event. Then there was watching a farmer shoe a horse, planting a garden in milk cartons, and becoming Washington or Lincoln for a day. Learning the important life skills of sharing, loving, and respect suddenly became goals for every day of the school year.

My first encounter with becoming a leader of adults in education was when I became president of the Texas Classroom Teachers' Association, first in my immediate school, and then, in the county. My superintendent called the association "The Ladies Aid Society." Perhaps feeling a little threatened, he successfully discouraged the male teachers from joining and so there were none. To counter his negative feelings about the organization, he was invited to attend functions, asked to speak to the group on different subjects, and was asked to attend meetings. Male professors from the local university were also invited. I visited the superintendent often to share concerns and get his input. He began to understand the needs of teachers and learned that we all were members of a team. He also learned that when teacher morale is good, the team is good... and the most important recipient of this good were the students. As a result of these efforts, and the fact that two brave male teachers joined, The Ladies Aid Society was the catalyst for forming a coeducational organization that exists to this day.

Leadership roles in the community seem easier to come by for women because, if for no other reason, there often is no one else who is willing to take responsibility. Indeed, in some organizations, there is a concerted effort to recruit more men. My experience in the educational community has been just the opposite. Men have always dominated positions of management and leadership up and down the ladder of academe, in both public and higher education, not to mention school boards. It was in this educational arena, where I found myself entering a field not yet attempted. Retiring early, I sought a teaching position at two local colleges.

It was an immediately uncomfortable feeling when I entered the Dean's office for an interview. He seemed frequently distracted, leaving the impression that I was wasting his time. He did most of the talking and when he ventured a look my way, I got the distinct impression that all he saw was a skirt, high heels, and, hanging around my neck, a sign which read: WOMAN.

Although I was not hired to teach, I did get a job supervising student teachers, thanks to a former male principal who was one of the supervising teachers on the faculty and under whom I had, at one time, taught. The chairman of the teacher-training department held the first orientation meeting with the incoming supervising teachers. I was surprised to notice that out of the 20 educators present, most were men. As I looked around the table I found that I knew most of them, for they were recently retired superintendents and principals who were friends of the chairman, who, in turn, had known them through his own experience as a superintendent. The few women present were experienced supervisors and seemed oblivious to this inequality, as I saw it. My territory for supervising students covered a 29-mile radius. This vast distance of travel reminded me of a friend's first year of teaching in a large metropolis. She was assigned to an at-risk class of 34 students, which almost caused her to leave her chosen profession. Determined to meet the challenge placed before me, I succeeded in carrying out my duties and was asked to return the following year. However, my disappointment over the politics of getting a job versus my personal attempts to expand my teaching experience as an educator at the college level soured me on any further endeavors in this area.

One night, as I attempted an illusive sleep, I had a dream. It was based on an idea I had had years before. In that dream, I started a school. When I awoke, I realized that I wanted to make that dream a reality. Twenty years have gone by and several hundred students have passed through the doors of my reading clinic. The opportunity to teach, direct, counsel, and educate parents and children turned out to be the leadership roles of absolute fulfillment. When one fails, one can always start her own business! Although I never realized the lofty goals anticipated from teaching in higher education, without trying, I may never have found my true calling and achieved even loftier goals. I also might have missed the opportunity to read the crumpled note Michael tossed on my desk at the end of one day. "You're my most best teacher in the hold world." Michael.

I Quit

Out of the 300 employees, Annie was the highest-ranking woman. She began preparing for her rise up the corporate ladder a full year prior to her promotion. The first step in her plan was to gain the confidence of staff and management by, first, leading sales, and, then, by solving problems and offering sound advice when asked. Her boss, Ron, exhibited difficulty in making decision, lacked initiative in implementing new ideas, and avoided, as much as possible, confronting staff problems. He was, however, quite adept at utilizing the talents of his employees and was able to effectively delegate responsibility. As a result, he often called on Annie to handle those challenges for him. Her strength in these areas complimented his and they worked well as a team. Ron was pleasant and easy to get along with. He was 20 years Annie's senior and often displayed a father-daughter relationship.

He half-listened to her when she confronted him with the idea of becoming the sales manager. At each opportunity, she reminded him of her ambition. Ron liked Annie, respected her, frequently relied on her judgment, and depended on her when something had to be done efficiently. But, sales manager?

"Ron, I don't believe you have been listening to me," she lamented.

He leaned back in his chair and let his glasses drop to the end of his nose. "Annie, you don't know how it is out there. They are all men and they are sharks."

She noted the father-daughter thing coming into focus. "Ron, you have done an awful lot for me. I think I have for you, too. Don't let me down. I need you."

Ron leaned forward in his chair and, with a knowing look, firmly, but softly said, "But you're a woman."

She placed her hands on her hips, glared at him, and retorted, "Then I quit!"

The next day she got the job.

Getting to this point in business required the use of all the skills she could muster. And she was soon to learn how sharp those skills had to be in order to achieve the expected goals of her company.

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Annie learned that leadership required a number of skills most take for granted. First of all, she had to become a good listener. This required patience, which was often difficult to muster in the fast-paced sales business. Oddly enough, sometimes ideas and solutions to problems resulted from listening well. The second skill she had to learn involved being firm in decision-making. If employees found she could be easily manipulated and waffle on her decision, discontent would snowball. Annie also learned that offering incentives through gifts, bonuses, or recognition played a part in encouraging her staff. Fairness did not necessarily mean that all were treated equally, but that each was treated fairly in accordance with responsibility and expectations. Humor, a smile, or a lighthearted comment could often disarm and ease a potentially combustible situation. Annie insisted that staff who met the public appear professional in behavior and appearance. She found that a leader is better or worse because of those who work with her. A well-running machine contains complimentary parts.

Annie's leadership required relationships with both males and females and she noted definite differences in personality, relationships, how each works with others, and the manner in which goals are achieved. Perhaps due in part to Annie's being the same age or younger than her subordinates, she noticed occasional spurts of defensiveness in women and absolute indifference from men.

The women might complain behind her back about a company policy, argue with her about responsibility, and threaten to go to the boss if things did not go their way. They seemed to have difficulty getting along with each other, arguing over petty things. The women became defensive at the slightest provocation, resisted change, and acted downright stubborn at times. Straightening out persistent personal quarrels seemed to occupy much of Annie's time at the beginning. As time went by, and as Annie learned the leadership skills mentioned above, many of the difficulties disappeared.

The men, on the other hand, went about their business in an entirely different way. They simply did not pay attention to her. They did not get in her way, seldom confronted her on issues, and came and went as they pleased. Therefore, Annie had to take the initiative in developing a business relationship with male personnel in order to coordinate a cohesive environment for the good of the company. The largest problem with the male personnel in sales was when one would attempt to "steal" clients away from another. Formulating firm rules regulated this to a great degree.

Annie generally found men easier to work with than women. Annie attended a national meeting of sales managers in Chicago recently. Out of the 14 managers present, she was the only female. They were most considerate, even in their language. On occasion, a word would slip out. The speaker would look at her and say, "Sorry, Annie." When making her presentation, she had forgotten some paper clips. The next morning, there was a box of paper clips on her table. The seemingly innate role of the male as protector provided Annie with ammunition in getting along with the men. Sometimes, having to flaunt the need for male help, she often gets what she wants.

There are times, too, when a tart response needs to be applied. Annie recalls an interview some time ago. The older man looked at her résumé and said, "See, you were in intramural softball at UT (The University of Texas at Austin). You gals can really put it out there."

Feeling somewhat demeaned by the remark, she replied, "Excuse me sir, but it is my opinion that you guys can put it out there, too... but we gals know where to place it."

She likens men-women relationships to those of lower animals. Put two male cats together and they fight for territory, fight for position, or fight for conquest. Put two female cats together for any length of time, and they basically do the same thing. Put a male and female together, and you have a close semblance of peace and harmony. An astute leader soon finds out that this fact of nature plays itself out often.

The Iron Lady

The school district she selected, as a rookie superintendent, was small. The town was equally small, conservative, attractive, and dotted with gift shops, bed and breakfasts, dress stores, an exclusive retirement community, and a well-known inn. In this serene atmosphere, a school existed that belied the gentleness of its surroundings. Upon selecting Brit as their first female superintendent, the school board, faculty, and community embarked on an adventure never before experienced and there were mixed emotions regarding this pretty, young woman who was brave enough to tackle the many challenges before her. Her trek down the hall found teachers, students, and personnel gaping at this tall, slim lady with high heels, and a Princess Di hairstyle. One first grader came to an abrupt halt immediately in front of her. "Wow!" he said, and tried to whistle. "You must be tall as Michael Jordan."

Little did she know of the problems besetting the school district and little did the district know that this calm, charming person would ultimately become known, along with Margaret Thatcher, as *The Iron Lady*. Included among the problems of the school were poor morale, ineffective faculty members, an unsightly campus, unsatisfactory academic standards, ambiguous goals and direction, and financial instability.

Entering her office one day, the local newspaper editor asked her if the cafeteria was running a catering service.

"A what?" she replied.

"A food catering service," he went on. "There was a party and I was told everything came from the school cafeteria."

Upon investigation, the cafeteria ladies had, indeed, been making a profit from a rather lucrative business.

The school bus situation was becoming dire with the numbers of new students entering the district. The board was discussing the matter when one of the principals mentioned a bus at a town a few miles south.

"What about that bus?" Brit asked.

"Well, a couple of years ago, they needed a bus and we let them use one of ours," the principal replied. "I suspect it's still there. What do you think we ought to do?"

Almost losing her poise, but finally mustering up her voice, she said, "Go get it."

Local farmers had been using the Ag equipment from time to time and some was still missing. "I don't know why they couldn't have returned all that stuff themselves," she muttered to her husband one evening. "Half of the community seems to have a key to the buildings."

The district had no money in the bank, had just passed a $6 million bond package, had hired the seventh principal in eight years, and when Brit asked how old the soiled carpet was at the high school, it took some in-depth thinking. One board member finally ventured a guess. "I really don't know, but it is for sure that it's been there for a loooong time."

Making personnel changes, shutting down the catering business, returning the bus to the district, finding the lost machinery, freezing teachers' salaries to make payroll, raising taxes by 10 cents, and shortening board meetings from six to three hours, were some of the messes that had to be cleaned up before addressing the most important issues related to students. Another time-consuming venture had to do with reducing the size of the policy manual... its shear volume could have propped open a barn door.

"What about our neighbor over there?" one of the board members asked one evening.

"What about him?" Brit wanted to know.

"Well, he's been hooking up his water hose to our administration building faucet and waters his garden."

"How long has this been going on?" she queried.

He thought for a moment. "I really don't know, but it is for sure, that it has been for a looooooong time."

Out of the 70 superintendents in the region, there are 6 females. Women are under much more scrutiny than men. Brit was asked what she was going to wear to graduation; changing her hairstyle made the paper; using the edger one afternoon at the high school got stares from the neighbors; wearing overalls to a football game almost set off an earthquake. Women superintendents, when attending district or state meetings, eat barbeque and fries... never a chef salad.

Womanly wiles must always be available for emergencies. As a leader in a man's world, Brit has to charm, console, and mother; chew someone out; and cross her legs and bat her eyes. A red dress with the hem just above the knees or the pink one may be worn when there is a stringent demand on influencing a somewhat reluctant group of males. The school was having trouble with a pest control company. She fired them. They retaliated by saying she had illegally broken the contract. They called a meeting. This was a Pink Dress Day. Having done her homework -- and knowing her arguments were on solid ground -- she entered the room, sat down, crossed her legs, and sat motionless while her male adversaries expounded on the action they felt compelled to take. When they had run out of fodder, she calmly shifted position, uncrossed her legs, opened her briefcase, and cited the documented cases of the many times they had not fulfilled their part of the contract. The school attorney had also done his homework. When they were finished apologizing, she took her leave, waved good-bye, got into her car, and drove off. If any folks had happened to be listening, they might have heard her rev that engine just a tweak.

Brit considers leadership a many-faceted sword. It includes charisma, empowerment, humility, vision, respect, honesty, directed energy, tenacity, and mentoring. A leader is able to see the whole picture and is willing to compromise when necessary. She surrounds herself with those who can take care of the details. A leader can be good... and she can be bad. The bad ones are self-serving. A good leader knows her strengths and weaknesses. A leader never misses the opportunity to say to her subordinates, "Great job!" and gives them a meaningful hug... or, in the case of a man, maybe a firm handshake will do.

The Final Knot

The family line of leaders seems to continue with my granddaughter, Beth, who, now in high school, shows that strain very clearly. One of her triumphs involves tennis. I watched a tournament in which she played. Her opponent was two years older than she and was a powerful server, not to mention her exceptional forehand. They were tied at two games apiece. Beth's strong strokes were taking a toll on her opponent who began to hit the ball past the baseline and in the alleys. Her frustration made matters even worse, as she banged her racket solidly against her foot. Beth, poised and expressionless, volleyed and lobbed the ball on crucial occasions, placing it barely in front of the baseline. Her opponent's last serve was delivered like lightning. Expecting Beth to retaliate with her usual long return, she stepped three feet behind the baseline and waited. Beth's racket seemed to ever so slightly touch the ball. It dropped gently just over the net, out of the reach of her opponent. She won the match.

Beth might have summed up leadership pretty well when she answered my question about how she accomplished this victory. She leaned on her racket, winked at me, and with a wry smile said, "Strategy, Grandma.... Strategy."

Chapter 14

Observations from a Pioneer

Lu Stephens

If a superintendent can develop a good staff that is loyal, delegate as much as possible, and keep the board informed and in the loop, then the frustrations lessen and the superintendent can float on the top and spend more time with the board.

I am on another plane and traveling to another meeting... I feel like the psychic in those letters that we get in the mail and throw away. The letter begins with, "It is late at night and it's raining. Suddenly, you are in my mind. Something very important is going to happen to you this year. You must contact me immediately!" I am 30,000 feet up in the air and am alone for the first time in weeks. I'm thinking about you, me, us, them, him, and her. I am headed for a meeting comprised of men and a few women. I am one of approximately 125 women superintendents in a state with 1,045 superintendents. Why do women enter this man's world? There is definitely a difference in the leadership of a man or a woman superintendent. Most men stay -- some women leave. However, in the last few years, a few men are leaving and more women are staying.

Having served as an administrator for 30 years, I've gone through many passages. I am one of the pioneers who blazed the trail for women and minorities. It has been a wonderful adventure with many ups and downs. Women are still disheartened that we are not better represented in our profession at the highest levels of leadership. I remember when there were a total of five women superintendents and high school principals in the entire state. Given the increases in this number over the past few decades, some men are convinced that women are taking over; although this is not said as much now as in the past.

Other perceptions also seem to be changing. Characteristics normally attributed exclusively to women are now not only valued, but even exhibited by some male school leaders. Descriptive words and phrases such as caring, nurturing, servant leadership, teaching minds and hearts, and leading with the heart can now be attributed to men as well as women. The *my way or hit the highway* philosophy is being replaced with "not my way, but OUR way." Cooperation, collaboration, and compromise are strategies utilized in these diverse situations. People skills are a must for success. People skills PLUS brainpower are necessary for effectiveness. Some school board members run for office as "single-issue" candidates and do so only to gain power. As more women seek school board positions, this situation could change.

We face a shortage of qualified and experienced superintendents. The turnover rate of superintendents is high, with many leaving after only two or three years. Some school boards exacerbate this situation by micro managing and not supporting the superintendent as the day-to-day decision maker.

Many leadership dissertations and studies in general, and in educational administration specifically, note the differences in male and female leaders and school leaders. Men and women are different... that's a fact. Both can exhibit effective leadership and successful job performance. However, leadership approaches, methods, and strategies are sometimes very different. Based on my observations, I would make the following generalizations:

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- Women are more verbal, more concerned, worry more, pay more attention to detail, work longer hours and take more work home, juggle more tasks and situations at one time, play less golf, are willing to accept less money, spend more money out of their own pocket, visit schools more, return phone calls and email more promptly, give more honest evaluations, tell fewer jokes, and do more mentoring.
- Men are conscientious about the athletic program, have more budgeting experience, play more golf, do not take things home with them, avoid conflict and confrontation, tell more jokes, pay less attention to detail and planning, and hire good women.

Regarding school boards in general, I believe that boards sometimes think that the superintendent's job is reserved for a man; treat women with less respect than men; want to give input, get input, select, assign, reassign, and approve personnel; and want to decide what to pay personnel and how many days personnel will work. This is one area in which boards attempt to micro manage and get crossways with superintendents very quickly. The legislature will need to step in soon because governance issues lead many good superintendents of both genders to rethink their goals. Once problems begin, boards are hard to turn around. Women have little chance of recovering with an all-male board in certain cultural circumstances, which can include differences in ethnicity or serving in different parts of Texas or bordering states. Research tells us that each school and every district has its own culture. If that is true, can you imagine the differences when we change towns, change to different parts of the state, or leave to a position in another state with a totally different political system? Superintendents have to be adaptable, and some adjust more quickly than others. However, some women are not given a fair chance. Women are being pushed out, but the truth is not often told.

We need women with staying power. We need to find women with leadership potential who have stamina, ethics, and strong character. We need to mentor them, train them, and stand by them because the job is very difficult and filled with irregularities. Not only does a woman superintendent have more challenges in dealing with a school board, she faces on a consistent basis more disloyalty, jealously, conspiracy, and back stabbing than a man does. Therefore, to diffuse some of the negative associations she must confront, a woman superintendent must stay the course, attempt to not take to heart the attacks on her as a person and leader, and, ultimately, remain focused on her goal... educating children to become successful members of our society.

Many women are coming away with insights into the career they thought they wanted. They thought they wanted a superintendency because they have a broad knowledge of the K-12 curriculum and good instructional practices. Supporting student performance and maintaining a system of accountability, being innovative, being visionary, and maximizing potential for students are concepts that women want to utilize in moving a district forward. Then, they sometimes bump into a brick wall. School boards say they want change, and then they lose their courage. They get calls and criticism from folks and confront the superintendent with their single issues. If two or three people complain, the board members feel that they are bombarded with complaints. Superintendents then have to decide that they do not want to lose that battle on that particular hill and then find creative ways to deal with a board that wants to tell the administration how to manage the district. Some superintendents tire of the grumbling. If a superintendent can develop a good staff that is loyal, delegate as much as possible, and keep the board informed and in the loop, then the frustrations lessen and the superintendent can float on the top and spend more time with the board. These things are very time consuming and hard to accomplish in most situations. When the superintendent carries a stressful mental burden for a long time and the board is up and down, and on and off, then we begin to lose our colleagues.

Men and women are deciding what is important. Women can make a meaningful difference. Women have skills that are essential to success, but we all have growing concerns that no matter how many skills or how strong a foundation one has, a school board can still look at a superintendent at anytime and say, "You ARE the weakest link. Good-bye." Hard data, good performance, and academic improvement and accountability mean very little when a school board turns against a superintendent. Why does this happen? The board members' relatives, rumors, gossip, and staff all can act to undermine efforts for change or improvement. Sometimes the board just decides they don't like the superintendent anymore. Who does the board believe? Anyone and everyone but the person they hired to run the district. Go figure....

These are not unique observations. I have watched and trained school boards for a long time. We have some excellent boards and we have some terrible boards. Our superintendents are at the mercy of boards, to a certain extent, whether they are male or female. But the female superintendent is still at a disadvantage in most situations.

This is a wonderful time to be in public education. The challenges are many and the frustrations are great, but the rewards are plentiful. Good school boards can help make the superintendent's job fun. We used to have fun, and we can have fun again. Trust and good communication are the main ingredients for the situation to work well. Good superintendent-board relationships are built on honesty, trust, and consistent communications. The board trusts, supports, and shares concerns with the superintendent and then allows the superintendent to do the job. If the superintendent can keep a sense of humor and not take things personally, then the sky is the limit. Good people skills will make the difference. There is a quote that I like a lot: "Eighty percent of success is just showing up." That is all we have to do ladies and gentlemen... and remember a few of the important things I have mentioned. Good luck to us as we enter a time of change and challenge! May we have the strength and the *stick-to-it-ive-ness* to remain in tact for the children and young people of Texas.

Chapter 15

Success

Carole Funk

She who knows
all the psychological theory
will not succeed unless
She understands people,
treating them with respect.

She who knows
how to get hired
will not succeed unless
She knows how to lead,
holding the light for others.

She who knows
all the political games
will not succeed unless
She only plays them to
improve the lives of children.

She who knows
all the leadership theories
will not succeed unless
She uses them with
skill, feeling, and care.

She who knows
how to get ahead
will not succeed unless
She helps others up too,
lifting them with her.

She who knows
will not succeed unless
She sees, feels, and dreams
of a better world for all,
though the smiles of children.

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Chapter 16

The Five H's of Educational Leadership: Hope, Help, Heart, and Health... or Oh, Hell!

Jerry Austin

Paying attention to the hope, help, heart, and health of its students and staff does not guarantee that a school will not experience problems, but failure to do so will increase the likelihood of major problems.

As district administrators, school based-councils, school boards, and others go through the process of selecting educational leaders of all types - including principals and superintendents -- they usually focus on performance-related skills such as whether candidates can prepare budgets, evaluate employees, develop instructional programs, work with students and adults, and supervise athletic and other extra-curricular activities. They look at transcripts to determine whether candidates have completed prescribed courses and their GPA in those courses. While all of these are important considerations in selecting educational leaders, they may not be the most important ones. In this paper, the role of four affective characteristics will be explored and advocated. It is contended that if the educational leader does not possess and cannot or does not help others to have hope, help, heart, and health, an *Oh, Hell!* situation will result as a negative impact of ignoring these critical needs of educators and students.

Hope

In his video, *The Power of Vision* (Charthouse Learning Corp., 1990), Joel Barker contended that if human beings are to strive for success it is crucial that they have hope for the future. He described people in various circumstances that were able to overcome unbelievable odds because they had hope. Many students from low socioeconomic homes, homes in which English is not the primary language, or homes in which education is at best viewed as a necessary evil to be endured enter American schools every year with little hope of ever being able to improve their stations in life. They strongly believe that they will not be able to rise above their parents' standard of living and that they cannot be successful in their educational pursuits. Many teachers and other educators hold the same beliefs about these children.

How, then, can one expect these children to succeed in school or in life after school? The answer lies in the ability of their teachers to convince these children that they can overcome the barriers they face. Before that can occur, educational leaders often have to convince teachers that it can happen and that teachers themselves are the vehicles for making it happen! Without this affirmation of hope for the future, teachers may see no reason to treat these children as if they can learn and the students may see no reason to try to do something that they believe they cannot do. Hope is the foundation of the belief that all children will learn. And hope must be present in both teachers and students if schools are to be places of learning for all students. Educational leaders must create such an environment to enable every teacher and every student to reach their potential.

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Help

Once hope is present, educational leaders must know how to help teachers be successful. Simply telling teachers to help students has practically no value unless the teachers know how to help students and their parents. Educational leaders must demonstrate the ability to help teachers analyze why students are not learning and to identify instructional techniques that can help students be successful learners.

High quality educational leaders constantly search for new and better ways to do things and then share those with their staff. Attending workshops, using the Internet, reading journals, and talking to colleagues who have been successful can help educational leaders stay current in the field and identify sources of help for teachers. Often, these new and better ideas come from the teachers themselves.

Educational leaders also must encourage teachers to take chances in an effort to improve student achievement. This can best be accomplished through modeling chance-taking behaviors themselves. Praising teachers and students for their successes is important. It is far more important, however, to help them learn that they can successfully confront any new situation by learning appropriate and relevant new strategies and skills.

Heart

Heart includes two components: compassion and courage. Educational leaders must attempt to understand the situations in which teachers and students find themselves and make allowances for their needs and concerns. This does not mean that administrators should overlook or excuse such things as lack of effort or concern; rather, it means that they must understand the potential causes of those behaviors and identify possible solutions to problems caused by them. For example, after investigating a situation in which the student consistently does not do his homework, the teacher or administrator may discover that there are numerous factors in the student's home life that prevent him from completing his assignments. It is not sufficient, however, to simply recognize that those factors exist and affect the student's work. Educators also must have the courage to take action in an effort to remove those barriers, even if those actions may subject them to criticism. All major improvements in education are accomplished only because educators have the courage to try different approaches, even though it would be more comfortable for them to continue doing what has always been done.

Compassion coupled with courage can help educational leaders and teachers to identify specific strategies to help children learn and to reach their potential. This approach also models for students a desire for them to demonstrate compassion and courage by reporting problems that a particular student is having as well as inappropriate activities that may or actually do occur at school. If schools are to be successful in continuing to reduce incidents of violence, students must assist in identifying possible problems before they occur. In almost every incident of school violence, someone in the school -- usually students -- knew about the possibility in advance. This is probably also true of suicides, drug use, depression, and other similar problems. If we continue to use punishment as the primary means of changing behavior at school, educators are doomed to failure. If they are to succeed, educators must teach students about these problems and their implications. They also must recruit students in a major effort at preventing them. Students' perceiving that educational leaders and teachers are compassionate, caring individuals will be crucial to accomplishing this goal.

Health

Health may well be the most important yet the least understood and emphasized factor in student learning. A successful educational leader must ensure that procedures are in place for identifying students and staff members who may need attention for physical, mental, or emotional health problems. Many students and educators do not follow good health practices, and this can reduce their ability to perform at optimum levels. Working with their families to encourage better health habits may require significant risk-taking by the educational leader. Very few people want to hear that they must make changes in their lifestyles in order to improve the health of their family members. In fact, they often will refuse to make necessary changes. When that occurs, the educational leader must ensure that assistance is available at school. For example, some schools offer physical fitness programs for both students and staff. Wellness activities may be implemented. If there is excessive absenteeism due to flu, the educational leader may provide flu shots to staff and students at no cost to them. These activities may be financed from additional money that schools often receive for increased attendance. They also may be able to establish links to community agencies -- such as health departments, comprehensive care facilities, and YMCAs -- that could offer the activities at reduced or no cost to students and staff.

"Oh, Hell!"

If educational leaders and teachers do not become more concerned about the four H's briefly discussed above, the result will be a situation in which the response will be, *Oh, Hell!* It may be an *oh, hell* such as a student's demonstrating frustration by cursing in the classroom, or it might be an *OH, HELL* when a major tragedy such as Columbine occurs. But it will occur. Students who have little hope have little or no incentive to behave in ways that educators wish for them to behave. If they receive little or no help, they may become frustrated by their inability to keep up with their classmates and act out in very inappropriate ways. Failure on the part of educators to demonstrate compassion and the courage to stand up for students when necessary may alienate those students who might otherwise provide information and assistance in preventing major school problems. Health problems, especially mental and emotional problems, may cause inappropriate behaviors and; at the very least, will interfere with students' abilities to learn and teachers' abilities to teach effectively and efficiently.

Paying attention to the hope, help, heart, and health of its students and staff does not guarantee that a school will not experience problems, but failure to do so will increase the likelihood of major problems. The educational leader is responsible for ensuring that staff, parents, and students focus on these priorities; therefore, as school boards, school-based councils, and district administrators recruit and select educational leaders, they must ask about candidates' abilities to deal with the four H's in order to avoid the fifth one. This may be especially crucial for male candidates because the four H's typically are perceived to be feminine characteristics. It is just as important, if not more so, for these behaviors to be demonstrated by male leaders, for it may be the only time that some male students ever see a male adult demonstrate them.

The Socialization Phenomenon

Women as School Executives:
Research and Reflections on Educational Leadership

Chapter 17

Dissembling Among the Good Old Boys: Female Senior Educational Leaders in Southern Appalachia

Anna Hicks McFadden
Penny Smith

> *To grow up female in the South is to inherit a set of directives that*
> *warp one for life, if they do not actually induce psychosis.*
> *This is true for high-born ladies as well as for farm women,*
> *and no one has ever quite explained it.*
> *A North Carolina journalist named Florence King made a good try,*
> *though, in a book called* Southern Ladies and Gentlemen.
> *All Southerners, she observed, are insane and*
> *most especially is the Southern woman insane.*
> *The reason is that "the cult of Southern womanhood"*
> *endowed her with at least five totally different images*
> *and asked her to be good enough to adopt all of them.*
> *She is required to be frigid, passionate, sweet, bitchy,*
> *and scatterbrained -- all at the same time.*
> *Her problems spring from the fact that she succeeds.*
> *~ Shirley Abbot (1998, p. 3)*

We came to this project already invested in some beliefs about Southern ladies and women who work as school administrators. Partially, these beliefs are a function of having spent most of our lives in the South. Partially, they are a function of having worked as school administrators in conservative, Southern school districts. We have personally encountered the dissonance between what Southern communities expect of their women and what they expect of their principals and superintendents. Most of us would probably acknowledge that Scarlett O'Hara's skills suggest that she is more likely to occupy the high school principal's office or a superintendent's chair than is Melanie Wilkes. Yet it is Melanie Wilkes whom Rhett Butler pronounces "a very great lady." Therein resides one of the contradictions that Southern women invariably encounter in their professional work.

One of us is a certified Daughter of the American Revolution, whose childhood included instruction in dancing, piano, and art. A participant in high school beauty pageants and, of course, a cheerleader, she attended a small, private all-girls church school in South Carolina which prided itself on annually designating a student as *most womanly.* She was taught that females had two proper professional choices -- teaching or nursing; she chose the former. Married early, she had the typical, large southern wedding (see *Steel Magnolias*, if a visual reference is necessary), and settled down to make a proper Southern home, complete with the children, the station wagon, and the annual subscription to *Southern Living*. The fraying edges of those life expectations came literally undone when a divorce and a series of career moves led eventually to a central office supervisor position and from there to a large, suburban high school principalship. The children were gone by

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the time she completed her doctorate in school administration.

The other is a certified Air Force brat, neither of whose parents qualified as Southern, but whose father kept claiming a regional affiliation in spite of a childhood spent exclusively in a Southern border state small town. She came of age in an institution gendered masculine both in spirit and composition, and recognized that in spite of parental rhetoric about options, her brother's list outnumbered her own. A Southerner by accident of birth and Air Force postings and later, after an Iowa City winter that left her whimpering for humidity, by emphatic choice, she knew the roles Southern society set aside for women. When her family finally settled in Texas, she understood that all those hundreds of drill team members freezing during half time at football games owed something to societal expectations about female perkiness. A teacher by chance, she became a middle school principal and later an associate superintendent through purposeful action.

Both of us rooted for Scarlett, even though we knew that we should admire Melanie. Both of us learned Scarlett's art of dissembling -- that is, playing a role to make things happen -- partially because it was useful and partially because it was easier. Both of us learned to work within Southern power structures occupied primarily by men and gendered, at least in the minds of most of the publics with whom we worked, masculine. We did so because we saw the positions to which we aspired as desirable. Once there, we could influence the institutional structures of schools in ways that we could not as teachers, or even as teacher leaders.

Working in a part of a Southern state that layers its Southern heritage with an Appalachian twist, we began to wonder if geography was not as much an influence on behavior as was gender. Certainly in our work with students in the region, there seemed to be an added effect when geography was joined with gender. Independently, we had both explored aspects of that connection. For example, in the summer of 2000, Anna Hicks McFadden wrote about that connection in an essay in *Advancing Women in Leadership*. She had detailed her experiences as a female high school principal in the Southern suburbs in *Speak Softly and Carry Your Own Gym Key* (1996). Penny Smith has written papers for the last several AERA conferences on the intersection of race, gender, and geography in the school history of the Southern Highlands of North Carolina. In the summer of 2000, we decided to pool our interests and begin a long-term collaborative project, investigating the ways that gender and geography shape the professional careers and practices of senior female administrators in Southern Appalachia.

Personally, we knew that gender had an effect on role expectations and practice, as well as perception of practice. As good feminist consumers of the literature about gender and school administrators, we also had a sense of what the literature yielded about female and male practice. We suspected that practicing in the South was somewhat different than practicing in the Midwest or New England or the West Coast, and that practicing in Southern Appalachia was different in a more intense way.

The Problem

In the February 2000 issue of *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Diana Ponder observed that "much of the work focusing on women's administrative experiences has drawn few comparisons to men's experiences -- or it has drawn comparisons to men's documented experiences of a generation or more ago" (p. 145) "It is," she wrote, "time to do more comparative studies designed to search for similarities and differences in the experiences of female and male administrators who are contemporaries to one another" (p. 145). This chapter recounts the first step of a larger study that will compare male and female senior administrators in Southern Appalachian school districts. It will provide the baseline data on women administrators that will be compared with a sample of men, whose professional autobiographies will also be collected. If, as we suspect, there are differences in those life narratives, we will refocus our data collection on how small samples of these two groups actually lead. In other words, we will move from collecting interview data to collecting information based on actual observations of their leadership in action; on the perceptions of co-workers; and on leadership actions embodied in policies, projects, or other artifacts of the act of administration.

As we began to collect information about our initial set of senior female leaders, we were also interested in another variable. Specifically, we wanted to initiate a discussion of the role that place plays in gendered experiences. Previous investigations of setting have focused on its relative advantage (favorable or less favorable in terms of resources) and size (Bell & Chase, 1995; Tallerico & Burnstyn, 1996; Wolverton, 1998). They have not focused on regions, on place as unique cultural space.

We had come to believe that factors other than gender per se or generic variables like school size might contribute to the acceptance of women as senior educational leaders, to the ways in which they work, and to the words with which they describe that work. So, we decided to look at a regional sample that is understudied and has a reputation for gender segregation and stereotyping. The guiding question for this part of what will be a more comprehensive study is: "What role does geography play in the gendered experiences of senior school leaders in Southern Appalachia?"

The Setting

Generally, when one sees the word *Appalachia*, the images that come to mind are those of impoverished mining towns, and the faces in those mental pictures might resemble those in photographs from the Depression era. In spite of our collective inclination to see Appalachia as West Virginia and Kentucky coal mining towns, the Appalachian mountain range actually extends from Alabama through New York. Parts of most Appalachian states experienced the psychological, social, and economic devastation of extraction industries. Lumber companies, for instance, left the forests of North Carolina and Virginia decimated. Mountains were unnaturally bald and, consequently, subject to mudslides that choked rivers and streams. The lumber companies moved to the Pacific Northwest and new timber stands, while the native Appalachians saw their children leave for factory and mill jobs downstate.

Indeed, if we consider cultural appropriation, then it is the Southern Appalachians that should readily come to mind. The ballad collectors, the arts and crafts movement fans, the settlement and missionary school people came further south than West Virginia, at least to Kentucky and as often to Virginia and Carolina. We decided to look at a part of Southern Appalachia. We know the region as an exporter of cultural artifacts. We know it as the home of displaced Highlanders. And, more importantly, we can document its gendered past from early and late travelers, do-gooder outsiders, and novelists. Moreover, the area has not received much scholarly attention either from students of school leaders or students of rural education. The region, then, would serve us in at least two ways. The few people who had studied the region had found a very patriarchal setting. If ever there was going to be a place where gender intersected with geography in shaping the experiences of senior school leaders, the Southern Appalachians appeared to be the likely candidate.

Our sample comes exclusively from school districts in the Southern mountain counties of North Carolina. The Northern mountain counties, we suspect, follow somewhat the same pattern, but they are less remote, tethered early to trade routes to the piedmont of North Carolina or towns across the Tennessee line. They are also not as far from the state capital of Raleigh and, consequently, less removed from the centers of political power in the state. Specifically, we looked at school districts that had once been grouped together as part of a far Western regional center, prior to the elimination of those outposts of the State Department of Public Instruction.[1] Starting in the far west and moving eastward, our sample included districts in Cherokee, Graham, Clay, Macon, Swain, Jackson, Haywood, Transylvania, Henderson, Buncombe, Madison, Mitchell, Polk, Yancey, and McDowell Counties as well as Asheville City Schools (a town system within Buncombe County.)

Within those counties one can find the western section of the Blue Ridge Parkway; the Cherohalla Skyway; the North Carolina portion of the Great Smoky Mountain National Park; the Cherokee, Nantahala, and Pisgah National Forests; the reservation lands of the Eastern Band of the Cherokee (Qualla Boundary); most of the mountains east of the Mississippi over 5,000 feet; several water reservoirs for electrical power (most built by the Tennessee Valley Authority); and many of the best whitewater rivers in the south. There are few roads that connect these counties with the rest of the state. For example, there are no interstate highways in 11 of those 15 counties; some counties have no four-lane roads at all. Clay County has no road exiting it to the north and access to the southern parts of Jackson and Macon County are possible only on winding two lane roads. Television signals do not penetrate many hollows and valleys in the area and satellites proliferate because that is the only access to a clear channel. To get from Cullowhee to Asheville -- a distance of approximately 48 miles -- travelers must adjust their public radio station call numbers at least three times to accommodate the ups and downs of the drive.

Within these counties are four of the remaining K-12 (also called union) schools in the state and several K-8 schools. Although most counties have consolidated their attendance zones as much as possible, often reducing the number of schools to a single high school and one or two middle schools, they have done so at the cost of increasing the distances that their buses travel, with some students spending more than two hours a day traveling to and from school. However, distance is not the only story in the Southern mountains. Things can be close in terms of *crow fly miles*, but very far apart by *pavement up, down, and around* miles.

Perhaps no author has captured the images we have of the residents of these hills at the turn of the last century as well as Horace Kephart, whose *Our Southern Highlanders* was originally published in 1913 and can be purchased today throughout the region. Kephart, who spent his last years in Swain County and who wrote extensively about the land that became the national park and the people who occupied it, noted the masculine qualities of uplands society:

> It is a patriarchal existence. The man of the house is lord. He takes no orders from anybody at home or abroad. Whether he shall work or visit or roam the woods with dog and gun is nobody's affair but his own. About family matters he consults with his wife, but in the end his word is law. If Madame be a bit shrewish he is likely to tolerate it as natural to the weaker vessel; but if she should go too far he checks her with a curt "Shet up!" and the incident is closed (pp. 330-331).

His wife "is not only a household drudge, but a field-hand as well" (p. 331). "Many of the women," Kephart writes,

> ...are pretty in youth; but hard toil in house and field, early marriage, frequent child-bearing with shockingly poor attention, and ignorance or defiance of the plainest necessities of hygiene, soon warp and age them. At thirty or thirty-five a mountain woman is apt to have a worn and faded look, with form prematurely bent -- and what wonder? Always bending over the hoe in the cornfield, or bending over the hearth as she cooks by an open fire, or bending over her baby, or bending to pick up for the thousandth time the wet duds that her lord flings on the floor as he enters from the woods -- what wonder that she soon grows short-waisted and round-shouldered? (pp. 288-289).

Kephart is not alone in his characterization of this land as one that is uniquely masculine in character and privilege. Popular travelers, novelists, settlement workers, and missionaries all have somewhat the same view of the region's gendered hierarchy. For example, Julian Ralph, writing in *Harpers Monthly Magazine* in 1903, noted that "the women are all drudges after marriage and are married in childhood," whereas "the men loaf about on horseback... visit their neighbors, the store, and the nearest village, and have as good and easy a time as they know how" (p. 41). John Campbell (1969), whose wife named a folk school for him, noted that the division of labor roughly corresponded to the public-private spheres dichotomy that characterized American society in the Antebellum period. Men operated in a larger world, doing the business of the household outside the home; their wives were more "shut in." Religious and political duties were the husband's chores; the wife's role was to provide Sunday dinner for the preacher after the preaching. "[T]he relations of man and woman are Pauline" (p. 124). Simply put, the male ruled the family.

Yet many commentators, among them Campbell, agree that as women aged in Appalachian society, they accrued more power. As Emma Miles (1975) observed, "it is not until she has seen her own boys grown to be men that she loses entirely the bashfulness of her girlhood, and the innate beauty and dignity of her nature shines forth in helpfulness and counsel" (p. 36). Yet it is still the community's patriarch that becomes the mythical negotiator for the settlement schools and not a matriarch.

Patricia Beaver (1986) studied two small communities in one of the counties in our study, collecting data between 1973-83. She was there during the time when most of our informants were entering adulthood and pursuing professions. Given that most of them were raised in the counties in which they are currently employed, Beaver's comments are germane. In *Rural Community in the Appalachian South*, she notes that "sex-role differentiation begins at birth" (p. 85). Men maintain the farm and raise the cash crops, whereas women tend to the home and canning the crops. "Men generally operate any machinery used" (p. 86). Consequently, "the rural woman... grows up with little knowledge of machinery and is dependent on her male kin and neighbors to fix her car" (p. 87). "Historically women and girls were 'protected' or restricted from exposure to animal breeding or birthing" (p. 88). "Parental authority becomes negligible for boys in their early teens... if... boys participate willingly and energetically in men's activities... they are treated as adults" (p. 91). "The husband is the public spokesman for the family among other men." "The wife rarely interrupts or contradicts her husband in public and defers to his position as authority and spokesman" (p. 97). By electing to remain in the communities of their childhood, eleven of our twelve subjects encountered barriers implicit in Beaver's findings. Paradoxically, by living among their neighbors, they also gained the credibility of insider status, which is almost a prerequisite to attaining a leadership position in the region.

Not only, then, are sample members in this study Southern women, but they are, with one exception, Southern *mountain* women, the one exception being an individual who has spent most of her life working in Southern schools. They are subject to, in the words of Shirley Abbott (1998), "the importance of dissimulation." The reason for the persistence of disguising one's feelings is simple. "[T]he Southern Belle has survived. Not because Southern society is unchanging but because the managerial techniques devised by the Belle have proved sound.... Southern girls," according to Abbott, "invariably, at an early age, catch on to the idea that being honest with men is a basic tactical error" (pp. 105-106). However, a career of dissembling can have devastating results. A Belle can come to believe her disguise. "She may end up believing that she really is helpless and dumb and dependent, in which case she will cease to be a Belle and become a victim" (p. 107).

Brubaker (1995), reviewing autobiographies of North Carolina campus administrators collected over a span of 20 years, noted that women were acculturated to respect the *good ol' boy* network. They worked in a modified niece-uncle relationship with their male supervisors or co-workers. Inevitably, however, they experienced cultural dissonance in confronting those roles, particularly once they moved into administrative positions. Although they tended to treat their male colleagues as peers in professional settings, they still deferred to them in social settings. Clinton (1995) argues that Southern women construct their identities within the boundaries of fixed and repressive gender roles and occupational expectations. Lynxwiler and Wilson (1988) claim that there persists a Southern Belle code that most Southerners recognize and that many enact. Brabant (1988) concurs. DeHart (1997) points to the tardiness of altering gender hierarchies in the South after women received the vote and links that to the almost solid resistance in the South to the Equal Rights Amendment as evidence that unique regional expectations of Southern women persist.

Our female administrators work in a particular part of the Appalachian mountains, one that held and continues to hold gendered expectations for its citizens. Those mountains reside within a region in which the idea of a Southern Belle persists. Do these female school leaders differ from what we know about school leaders elsewhere? Do they differ from the men who hold comparable positions in the region? The *McDonaldization* of our society so well chronicled by Ritzer (1996) has brought the Golden Arches to the backwoods counties of our state. Satellites guarantee that more than a grainy station from across the Georgia or South Carolina line will make it to mountainside manufactured homes. In the face of standardization of the American gender discourse, do differences persist here in ways that are distinct from elsewhere in the country? And, if so, what are they? How are they acted out in practice?

To generate responses to those questions, we began with the women who have climbed the highest on the educational leadership ladder, women who would be identified by virtue of their positions as senior school administrators. Ideally, we would focus only on superintendents. However, we quickly expanded our sample beyond superintendents simply because the resulting number would have been too small. In the Southern mountains of North Carolina, there are only three sitting female superintendents and one who has retired. We found fifteen women who fit our criteria of holding a central office line or staff position of authority as either superintendents, assistant or associate superintendents, or directors of curriculum and instruction. They were women who either were the head of a school district or who were in a job often associated with advancement into that top job.

The Administrators

Of the fifteen administrators that we invited to participate, two did not reply and one has had an extended illness and her participation has been limited thus far to informal conversations. While we will refer to her briefly in the findings section below, we will focus our attention primarily on the twelve women from whom we have formal interview and socio-demographic data. They represent ten different school systems (nine of the fifteen county systems and the one city system within our region). They include three superintendents,[2] four associate superintendents, four assistant superintendents, and one director of curriculum and instruction. The director of curriculum and instruction was in that position when we began our study and had been in that position for over a decade, but has changed positions during the course of the study to that of a lead teacher -- a move that we will briefly discuss below.

All of the women in the study have at least an Ed.S. (or educational specialist [sixth-year] degree) and superintendency-level licenses and eight of the twelve have doctorate degrees, a less than easy feat in our part of the state. Until 1996, there was not a doctoral program of any kind available at the two public universities in the region, Western Carolina University (WCU) and the University of North Carolina at Asheville (UNCA).

At that time, WCU began its first Ed.D. program in school leadership and one of the eight women was in its first graduating class in May 2000. Five of the other seven received their Ed.D. between 1987 and 1991 from the University of North Carolina at Greensboro (UNCG), which operated an off-campus doctoral program on the UNCA campus in the late 1980s and early 1990s. Most of the men and women who hold doctorates in the Southern mountains participated in that program, which taught three different cohorts during a period of approximately eight years. At about the time that the UNCG program was phased out, the University of South Carolina (USC) began a satellite program near the state line and charged in-state tuition for North Carolina residents who enrolled (a policy that has since ended). Two of the women in our sample hold USC doctorates, the Ph.D. in this case, receiving them in 1994 and 1997 respectively. One of the four women without a doctorate is currently in the last stages of her Ed.D. at WCU.

Interestingly, most of our sample received their undergraduate and graduate degrees (masters and specialist levels) from WCU, with their years in various programs overlapping. Consequently, they are often well acquainted with each other in student roles as well as school leader roles. That would also hold true somewhat for the five women who participated in the UNCG extension program. Only one woman is completely out of the common education loop, a superintendent whose undergraduate work was at Wake Forest, and whose graduate work was in South Carolina, at Converse College for the master's degree and at USC for the doctorate. Undergraduate work was split between WCU and UNCA, with most of the women going to the former. Only one member of our sample was born in another state and she attended undergraduate and graduate school at out-of-state institutions before coming to the southern Appalachians. She has, however, earned administration master's and specialist's degrees at WCU in addition to completing elementary education degrees elsewhere, thereby sharing classes with some of the other women in the sample. Only one other administrator completed her undergraduate work out-of-state, at the University of Tennessee.

All thirteen members of our sample are or have been married. One superintendent indicated that she only recently married and does not know if she could have done the level and extent of work that she had done previously if she had had to juggle both a personal and a professional life. For her, those two lives were indistinguishable for most of the time that she spent in education. One superintendent is currently divorced, but the divorce occurred prior to her being named superintendent. She is the only woman of the twelve who is single at the moment, but not the only one who has gone through a divorce. Three of the women have retired spouses and several of them mentioned how supportive their spouses are and had been in helping them meet the needs of their family. Three women have had no children, while four women have had one child and five women had two children.

The career paths of these women represent both typical and atypical patterns. Of the three superintendents, all had some administrative experience prior to moving into a superintendency, but that experience varied from one superintendent who was previously a teacher, assistant principal, and high school principal to another who had served as a teacher, assistant principal, curriculum supervisor, and assistant superintendent prior to being named superintendent. The third superintendent was never a building-level administrator, and moved from being a teacher and special education administrator into assistant and associate superintendencies before becoming superintendent. Five women never held a building-level administrator position and one held an assistant principalship, but only for a very short period of time. Most of the women, when they moved into central office positions, did so in curriculum and instruction areas. On average, these women spent a little over 12 years in the classroom as teachers (range from 4 to 22 years, with a mode and median of 13 years) and have averaged just under 16 years in administration (range from 7 from 22 years, with a mode of 20 and 22 and a median of

16). They have averaged 28 years in education (range from 22 to 35 years, with a mode of 27 and 35 and a median of 27). Six of the women are in their 50s; five of the women are in their 40s, and one woman is over 60. Most of them moved into their first administrative position when they were in their late 30s or early 40s.

Seven of the twelve women have spent their entire professional careers in the school systems in which they were born, including the three women who are superintendents.[3] The mobility of the other women was limited. Two taught originally in the counties of their birth, but moved eventually to the counties in which they got their initial administration position. Only one woman could be considered an *outsider*. Although she has lived in the area for over twenty years, she is still considered somewhat of an outsider. Only one insider had taught out of the state and that was for only a couple of years. For the vast majority of our sample, professional work has been done locally. They knew well the people in the communities in which they worked. They and their children grew up in the same neighborhoods, played and studied in the same schools, and attended the same churches as did the members of their school boards.

Four women had parents who were teachers; both parents of one of them were educators. Generally, however, parents were not college graduates. Two of their mothers did not finish high school (one got a GED) and two of their fathers did not finish high school. Most of their mothers were employed in clerical or sales jobs. Two were stay-at-home mothers. One worked in a factory. Three held professional jobs working in educational or social service agency settings. Most of their fathers were self-employed or worked in construction. One was a miner or laborer, depending on job availability, and another worked in a mill. Three were teachers.

None of the women was an only child and on average they had slightly more than two siblings (range of 1 to 4 siblings, with a mode of 1 and median of 2). Four women were first-born children, six were middle children, and two were the youngest child in the family. When asked to name the individual or individuals that influenced them to decide on a career in education, they most often cited a parent or someone in their family, followed by an influential teacher. Only one of them considered entering educational administration when she began her professional careers as teacher -- while most played *teacher* as children, she played *principal*.

Many of the general characteristics of our sample resemble those of female school administrators in general. Women tend to move into central office positions, often associated with curriculum and instruction, rather than principalships as they move toward a superintendency. However, recent patterns for male and female superintendents show them spending more time in a central office position than they once did; a significant number of them have been assistant or associate superintendents (Glass, 2000). They have teaching careers that often extend beyond ten years (Morie & Wilson, 1996; Schuster & Foote, 1990). One indication that more women are moving into senior administrative positions is the recent extension of the average age of service as a teacher by sitting superintendents from five to nearly seven years (Glass, 1992, 2000). They tend to have advanced degrees and are likely to have doctorates (Boudreau, 1994; Pavan, 1995; Stouder, 1998). Their principalships are often at the elementary level (Edson, 1995; Glass, 2000). Women are likely to attain their position within their home system (Crawford, 1992; Lea, 1989). These women grew up in rural areas or small towns (Glass, 2000) and they tend to occupy districts of under 300 students. That is not true for the women in our sample because none of the countywide school districts in the state are that small. Only a few of the old incorporated city systems remain and they, too, all contain well over 3,000 students. McCreight (1999) found that female superintendents tended to be more likely to be single, widowed, divorced, or part of a commuter marriage than men, something that was not evident in our sample. Conversely, Obermeyer, in a 1996 study of California superintendents, found that most of them were white, in their late 40s or mid

50s, and married with children -- all true for most of the women in our sample. The average age for superintendents is 52 (Glass, 2000), close to what we have for the three superintendents in our sample, although they are a little older. Also like national trends, there are more superintendents in the western mountains of North Carolina today than in 1992 (Glass, 2000).[4]

The Problem Reconsidered

Glass (1992) found that the Census Bureau considered the school superintendency to be the most male-dominated leadership position in any profession in this country. "The superintendency," wrote Grogan and Henry (1995) "continues to be constructed as a male arena" (p. 172). Bjork (1999) claimed that the superintendency continued to be the most gender-stratified professional position in the United States. Moreover, the South is the most gender-coded region in the country and the Appalachian mountains are also known as a region with strict gender codes. How do women rise to senior administrative positions in Southern Appalachian school systems? In what ways do they perceive their gender, their community, and their region as influencing their selection to such positions and their work in them?

Methodology

Our research project in this area was originally divided into five phases. In phase one, which is reported here, we investigated the ways in which our female sample perceived their route to senior level leadership, their performance in that position, and the ways in which gender contributed to and/or hindered both their professional journey and their leadership styles. In phase two, we developed a paired sample of male school leaders. We plan to ask them this summer the same general questions that we asked our initial group of women administrators. In phase three, we will investigate their leadership styles and effectiveness from other professional perspectives, using selected informants that they identify as individuals who were familiar with their job performance as well as using our own observations. In phase four, we will look at their leadership from a community perspective, using a variety of resources (newspapers, for example, as well as informants, sociodemographic data, and evidence of system effectiveness). Finally, if we verify the existence of the differences that we believe we will find, we will expand our sample using a survey of regional school leaders in other Southern Appalachia states with selected follow-up interviews.

For phase one, we relied on qualitative case study methods (Stake, 1995). We gathered autobiographical information from our twelve female administrators through a sociodemographic survey and focused one-on-one interviews that we conducted in the offices of the person being interviewed, except in one case when the person elected to talk outside her office. The interviews were semi-structured, thereby ensuring some consistency in the data collected, but also allowing us to explore topics that arose during the course of the conversations. The interviews were audiotaped and then transcribed. Data analysis followed the constant comparative method described by Brunner (2000). Data was organized into broad taxonomies, coded, and analyzed for emerging themes and those themes were then related to other themes (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987).

As indicated above, our initial sample comes from a fifteen county region in North Carolina's southern mountains. Although five years ago such a study could not have been done because of the paucity of female administrators, there are currently three female superintendents and eight associate or assistant superintendents in those systems. A fourth female superintendent recently stepped down for medical reasons and she, too, will be part of our sample.[5] We elected to focus deeply on one part of the Southern Appalachian region assuming that the knowledge gained therein would contribute to the development of an appropriate survey to be used in phase five of our project.

Findings

Our interviews with the female participants yielded a rich set of data centered around the following themes:

1. Falling into or being called to the profession
2. Childhoods of nature, family, and playing school
3. The influence of mentors: Because of and in spite of
4. Teaching days: Going above and beyond
5. Leadership: Tempered toughness
6. Moving into administration: Proving oneself and paying dues
7. Important work: People and responsibilities
8. Role/self: I am what I am
9. Accomplishments: Not I but we
10. Frustrations: Time and tough hurdles
11. Family support
12. On going home again: Attitudes and adjustments
13. The significance of place: It matters
14. On being Southern: Lady language
15. Men and women: Painting with a brush vs. picking up the pieces
16. Commitment and sacrifice
17. Issues of acceptability to the community

Because this chapter is primarily concerned with the intersection of place and gender, we will focus on only three of these themes: going home again, the significance of place, and being Southern.

Going Home Again: Attitudes and Adjustments

Most of the women in our study find themselves in leadership roles in areas where they have lived all their lives. Although they have faced challenges working in the school districts in which they were once students, they are there either by choice or because they feel that their own children have tied them to the region. On being asked about the advantages and disadvantages of being from the region, one women noted, " I think it is a wash.... Initially, like I said, it was hard getting into [administration], but I have had wonderful success and luck and lots of opportunities to lead in really good jobs. But this is home, and I have done well. Why leave?"

Though she is content to stay, her acceptance as a female administrator has not been easy: "Several years ago we had some street preachers.... Eventually it got on national TV and Sally Jesse Raphael and all those other [shows]. And he would bring his children. What would happen is that he would put his children out to preaching on the school campus." The children were not attending class, shouting "whoremongers," and were suspended. The participant noted, "He would never shake my hand because he said I was sinning against God because I was in a position of authority over men." She added that there are still those who share his sentiments, but may not articulate them. "And you still have to sort of play a fine line. I have to play it less now than I have in the past.... It is not acceptable for women to be too aggressive."

Another woman secured her first teaching job because her uncle was on the board of education. She had not completed her certification because her grandmother had been ill and needed her attention. Having been initially turned down for the position, her family connection helped assure it. Another felt firmly that being from the region provided an essential knowledge of the community and the people. Still another believed that being from the region provided the advantage of a trust factor and added, "I think it would be hard to get a job in another district without those relationships and I doubt I would get one." Another agreed, but did not necessarily feel that being from the region was essential.

One woman saw her rural mountain roots as an asset in leading others. "One thing about mountaineers...." she said, "is that we can be very stubborn. We can be very outspoken. We can be very proud of our background." She described one of her first experiences entering into her husband's work-related social circle. She initially felt uncomfortable in those social situations. She then grew beyond her discomfort and now sees how some parents may feel intimated by educators and feel the way she once felt. "I think the unless you have experienced some of those things in your own life, it is hard to have empathy. So I have been grateful for that."

The Significance of Place: It Matters

All of the women in our study recognized the significance of place -- Southern Appalachia -- on their roles as leaders. One woman vividly recalled that when she was first hired as a principal, a female principal was unheard of. "I guess the saving grace for me was that I had been there for those eight years and I have good relationships with the community and the parents... and having [taught] Seniors, I began having their children come back very quickly." She described learning that she "had to go the extra mile" to show people she was doing a good job and, as she said, "It was not the superintendent or board of education that I was proving it to. I just wanted the community to see that I could do it." She recalled the superintendent being approached by a female in the community who said a woman (the participant in our study) should not be a principal because she could not keep order. Years later, after our participant left the principalship, this woman confessed what she had done and said, "I really didn't think that a woman could come in and do the things that needed to be done and you certainly proved me wrong."

Another participant in the study cited the Scotch-Irish background of many people in the area and noted, "I think that a lot of that culture has to do with men, males being the leaders and breadwinners, and I think there is a little bit of that still hanging on there." For another woman in a large school district in the region, leadership positions for women were not a problem. She credits a previous male superintendent who was bold enough to hire a female high school principal. "That had never been the case before," she said, "and once that door was opened, women were able to seek more jobs. And women I really do believe have to do double the work and work twice as hard to get to a certain level. Once you get to that level, I think that people see that women can do it."

Others noted additional attitudinal concerns of communities in Southern Appalachia. One described the "very pervasive attitude of some parents... that they didn't value education. In fact, they were very suspicious of people who were educated and their message -- their Southern message -- to their kids sometimes is, 'Don't you get so high and mighty. Don't go out there and get above your raisings. I didn't finish high school and look how well I have done.'" Another spoke of her frustration with the lack of resources for some of the children in her district. Because of the per capita wealth of retirees drawn to the beauty of the mountains, the district qualifies for very little assistance and many children would go unserved without creative efforts such as a full-day program for four-year-olds. Another woman described her efforts with the local arts council to expose children in the district to opportunities they might otherwise never experience.

On Being Southern: Lady Language

All the women in our study were Southern born and bred, and the language they speak is, indeed, *lady language*. The importance of being a lady was a significant part of their responses to our question concerning how growing up in the South influenced who they were as leaders. As one woman said, "I think it is a privilege to be a Southerner. And I think being a Southerner gives a certain graciousness that we are expected to demonstrate as leaders in the leadership position. I try to remember that I should try and act lady-like, not that I always do and not that I always hold my tongue." Another said that being called a lady was "a supreme compliment." Another saw herself as a Southerner, people who "seem to be more easy to talk to. Less judgmental maybe. More embracing." One participant viewed Southerners as more caring and religious, "much more concerned." One woman said that being a Southerner makes her more "polite" and forces her to "focus on relationships a lot more." She also noted that "something that we have dealt with over the years somewhat is race and I think there are some Southern traditions there." She described being very hurt when a group of Native Americans called her prejudiced and a white, privileged racist. She said she had become more comfortable over the last ten years dealing with racial issues and talking about them more openly.

One woman spoke of the messages Southern women hear: "I think that Southern women are to a fault trying to take care of their men folk and I was brought up to take care of the men in my family and I think I still have that side.... I hopefully am more of a friend to my daughter and I take care of my son. You know, it is still that role-playing.... I think that Southern women... have always taken a strong role in the family and I think that has made Steel Magnolias." She went on to describe Southern women as having worked side by side with men in the family while, at the same time, trying to take care of them.

One participant described what she learned:

> Growing up the in South, females are brought up to believe they are supposed to be sweet and proper, subservient and nice... all those kinds of things. You are not supposed to be a risk taker. In fact, as children that is not a good quality to have. ...I purposely looked at my children when they were little and thought of what I would want my children to be. And I raised my children exactly the opposite of the way I was raised. I over did it. I thought I wanted them to be opinionated and strong and assertive and unafraid. And I got all those things when they turned 13. Every one of them. So they about killed me. Now, they are both strong women.. And, of course, now they vote for Ralph Nader. Very liberal minded and free thinkers. But I wanted them to have a different upbringing from me.

Many of the women responded readily with stories related to place. They could recognize the value of an insider perspective. They also readily identified themselves as Southerners, seeing in that regional term a set of behaviors and attitudes that they associated with "being a lady." Most of them were decidedly comfortable in playing that role.

The Homecoming and the Outsider

One less sanguine aspect of the intersection of gender and geography is evident in the career of the one retired female superintendent in the region. She was born and grew up in a small, very rural Appalachian community. Inspired by teachers and family to enter education, she attended a local college and obtained a teaching credential, but then left for "the big city." Most of her professional career was spent in the most urban school district in the state. There she moved into a central office position, first as a content area supervisor and eventually as someone with significant curriculum and instruction responsibility. Sought by a reform-minded school board head to return home in the position of district superintendent, she came with an agenda focused on change and improving opportunities for local children. The first board election after her return resulted in a coalition of traditionalist natives who found her vision and leadership style inappropriate. She had committed the sin of "getting above her raisings" and having pretensions that were "from away." She identified gender as one of the reasons that her behavior rankled certain board members. Had not bad health, exacerbated somewhat by a deteriorating relationship with the board, precipitated her retirement, she is unlikely to have easily gained a contract renewal.

Our one outsider participant and her superintendent clashed in the fall about her job responsibilities. For years her job at the county's central office had expanded, although neither her salary nor her title had changed. When a principal reshuffling placed a male in the central office with a handsome salary and the title of assistant superintendent, she raised the issue of equity, taking her complaints to the local school board. The entire board and the superintendent are locals whose families have long histories in the county. Her petition for redress was not received favorably and she and her superintendent negotiated a campus position reassignment. She is currently looking for another position, one that is not in Southern Appalachia. She cites both gender and geography as being factors in her job transfer.

Briefly Revising the Literature

Our study owes much to the work of Bell (1988), Brunner (2000), Chase (1995), and Chase and Bell (1990). Bell (1988) noted that early research on women superintendents looked at external factors. It did not "describe and understand the experience... from the perspective of the women themselves" (p. 35). We are interested in how both men and women in Southern Appalachia perceive their experiences as school leaders and, obviously, whether those perceptions differ. For purposes of this chapter, we looked tightly at one aspect of the perceptions of a unique sample -- Southern Appalachian women.

Chase (1995) examined "the content of discursive realms" (p. 17). Like her, we believe that talk is important and is, by itself, worthy of investigation. Chase and Bell (1990) have developed analytic strategies for looking at gendered discourse that we are finding particularly helpful. Finally, Brunner (2000) provides a model for integrating the Chase and Bell analysis with a research design that uses several strategies that we are incorporating into a more subtle analysis of our texts. We utilized some of her insights in the initial analysis of our data.

Many of us view Southern Appalachia as a site for investigating cultural topics. We know a considerable amount, for example, about its music, story-telling traditions, and dance. We know something about the ways the Southern Uplands came to be settled, who the settlers were, and the socioeconomic patterns that characterized the region for most of the 19th and 20th centuries. We know far less about Appalachian schooling and what we do know tends to be demographic in nature. When rural schooling has been the subject of investigation, we have more often turned to New England, the Midwest, and the West. (Note, for example, Theobald [1995].) Only rarely do we look at the experiences of Appalachian school leaders; even more rare is an investigation of female school administrators. So, although we found a growing general literature on women in educational administration to serve as a guide, we found almost nothing in that literature on Southern Appalachian women. There does exist a body of recent research on work-related gendered roles in the Appalachian literature (Anglin, 1994; Green, 1990; Maggard, 1994; Maggard, 1995; and Oberhauser, 1993). What exists affirms our premise, which has been reinforced by phase one of our study -- Appalachia is a region in which stereotyping and role segregation are deep and entrenched.

For the women who have been successful and who feel comfortable in their leadership roles, gender and geography have not necessarily been a barrier to their success. There have, at times, been challenges. Yet by being the lady, most of these women have found ways to negotiate the gender expectations in their county. When women transgress the boundaries of being a proper lady and do something construed as unlady-like, such as questioning a superintendent, then they are likely to encounter trouble. If their skills at negotiating insider space are rusty (the retired superintendent) or tentative (the outsider), they have difficulty with the level of dissembling necessary to be successful.

For Further Study

Based on what we have learned, we anticipate that the stories told by our male sample will differ somewhat from our female sample. They will, we think, have fewer stories that relate to gender. They will have different memories about place and the roles that geography played in their coming of age. Geography, however, will be an important variable in determining who they became and they, like our female sample, will not have strayed far from home. They will have fewer degrees, have spent less time in classrooms as teachers, have less central office experience, and have had experience as a coach. They will tell us fewer stories that relate to balancing the demands of a family and a job. So, in the next stage of our research, do we expect to find a difference in professional autobiographies? Probably, with very different stories about what being a mountaineer means.

Do they lead differently? We anticipate that they will, if only because our sample of women made several comments that reflected a distinction between what men did and what women did. As one of our informants noted, "people don't expect men to be good with particulars. People expect men to paint with a brush and someone else to pick up the pieces and make sure everything is correct.... People expect women to be good with the details and take care of the details themselves." Another observed, "[W]omen lead more with heart... not that head doesn't play a great factor. I... think that women don't have the ego that men have. We arrive at the same decisions, but I have a different take on it." Yet another administrator claimed that men tend "to be more lone rangers. They create a dependency... where women nurture more as a peer relationship." Since most of these women have not worked outside the region, their perceptions come from observing the very population from which we will draw our sample.

Concluding Thoughts

Today in North Carolina's Uplands, the superintendency provides less of the independence and status that holders of the position once experienced. Both it and the principalship have lost a considerable degree of autonomy and a lesser degree of prestige. Several trends suggest that educational administration is in transition. State legislatures in the South currently compete for the title of educational activist and micro-management has become business as usual. Regulations proliferate, as do public accountability measures. District-level leadership is not as much fun as it once was, nor can school or system leaders exercise as much independence as once they could. Females comprise the majority of students now enrolled in preparation programs in most parts of the country, including, to a slightly lesser degree, our part of the state. We have reached gender parity in assistant principal positions and approach it in terms of elementary principalships. Increasingly, women are hired to lead secondary schools. Since 1992, we have doubled the number of female superintendents in the country -- still a miserly 13% -- and these numbers will continue to increase.

It appears likely that school leadership is being constructed as a gender-neutral position. It is not inconceivable that it will become, as did teaching, a profession gendered as women's work. In today's economy, both men and women have many attractive employment options. However, it is more likely that women are place bound and, if the place is the mountains of Carolina, it is a place they are reluctant to leave. Local politics, even in Appalachia, are less likely to be openly partisan or, at least, are less likely to exhibit in blatant patronage. Men, then, do not have entitlement to specific school and system positions in ways that they once did. Outsiders are increasing in number in Southern Appalachia, particularly outsiders with money, education, and grown children. They bring a different perspective about the roles of schools and education, and they are increasingly becoming politically visible and vocal. They do not feel reluctant to ask questions and demand responses. While few of them qualify as good old boys, fewer still are mountain born and bred.

Jackie Blount (1998) observed that "the contemporary classroom provides teachers little of the independence of the one-room schoolhouse" (p. 159). In much the same way, the contemporary office offers its occupants circumscribed choices. Blount argues that raising the number of females in a profession does not automatically alter its structure or the ways in which power is exercised. "The superintendency... is not a neat center of power in public schooling" (p. 162). As power increasingly is wielded outside the mountains - downstate in Raleigh in the halls of the legislature - the job itself will become less attractive to those individuals whose choices are open and whose feet can take them outside the hills; those who are not place bound. Our participants suggests that women perceive themselves as exercising power for the same ends as their male predecessors, albeit not in the same way. One area that we know needs more exploration after this initial round of interviews is why these women want powerful positions and what they hope to accomplish once a leadership position is attained. Where do they want to take public schooling in the future? Rather than focusing so tightly on where these women have been and what they have done to get to where they are today, we need to begin to pay attention to where they wish to take us tomorrow.

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[1] The state was once divided into eight educational regions, each with a service center that provided support, primarily with regard to professional development, for school districts within that region. Those centers were also used for regional meetings of various professional organizations. In a cost-cutting move at the end of the 1980s, those centers were phased out and replaced by independently contracted centers directly affiliated with local districts rather than the state. Partially as a function of distance, the reconstructed regional center in the Southern Appalachians is the most functional of those entities and today does nearly the level of work that it once did under state auspices.

[2] The individual excluded from this analysis for medical reasons was, in her last position, the superintendent of yet another county in the region; however, there have never been more than three female superintendents in the region at any one time. In 1996, there were two female superintendents and the year before that there had been only one.

[3] The fourth female superintendent in the region was also born in the county in which she superintended, but had spent most of her professional career out of the region in an urban system in the North Carolina Piedmont.

[4] In 1992, only 6% of all superintendents were women; in 2000 that number had climbed to 13% (Glass, 2000). In the Western Regional Education Service Alliance district, women constitute nearly 17% of the local membership of the superintendent council.

[5] Although we completed some preliminary work with that individual, discussing, for example, her leadership experiences and style in the superintendency, we have not been able to collect all the information we hope to obtain due to health problems. We anticipate completing our data collection with her this spring. We do, however, refer to her experiences once in this chapter and have noted the reference accordingly. Her sociodemographic information is not summarized in The Administrators section of the chapter.

Chapter 18

Women in Elementary School Leadership: Challenge and Change

Linda J. Gutsch

Remember, Ginger Rogers did everything Fred Astaire did, but she did it backwards and in high heels. ~ Faith Whittlesey

After over ten years of dedication and devotion to the school district, she was certain that she was a strong candidate for the rare principal opening at the elementary school. After all, she was recognized as a strong teacher; had the support of parents who had requested her as their child's teacher; and had paid her dues as a volunteer on numerous district committees, donating hundreds of hours in sharing her expertise. Being the only female candidate in a field of four applicants being interviewed for the position, she assessed her background and credentials against those of her competition. She had more classroom teaching experience than any of them. She knew this school district and the unique and special needs of this elementary school.

She had completed both her master's degree and administrative certification programs at a recognized in-state university with an excellent reputation for strong administrative preparation. She did her administrative internship in the district and felt that she had gone above and beyond in meeting and exceeding both the university and state requirements for certification.

She had given extra time and diligence to each project assigned and was careful to see that the supervisor she worked under received credit for the work she completed and submitted on behalf of the district. She had worked hard to exemplify her willingness to be a team player. She was confident and composed as she sat in the reception area waiting for her scheduled interview time. Her thoughts focused on her background, preparation for the position, and the inside knowledge she already possessed about the district as well as the elementary school and its goals and needs. Yes, she was nervous... but it was not due to lack of preparation for this interview or this leadership opportunity.

Her thoughts were racing through the comments from friends and colleagues. They had warned her that the district was dominated by males in administration and was not likely to change. They had warned her that there was even some jealousy among other teachers on staff when word of her application had surfaced. Being one of *them*, an administrator, would certainly put her on the other side of the table, and she would no longer be a part of the teacher team. They had warned her that parents in the community tended to see males as stronger disciplinarians and managers of schools. They had forced her to look at the *males only* dominance of administration that had existed prior to her application. She tried to put these feelings and thoughts aside in order to better focus on the immediate task at hand, the interview.

As the door opened, the superintendent emerged shaking the hand of the candidate before her, and the two were laughing and sharing what appeared to be a story of mutual interest. The superintendent called the candidate by his first name and patted him on the back as he left, assuring him he would be calling him following the interviews. She watched as the mood changed when the superintendent noticed her sitting there. He called her by her formal surname and indicated that she was next on the interview list. She

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Dr. Gutsch is the Principal of Franktown Elementary School in Franktown, Colorado.

considered that interesting since the two of them had known each other on a first name basis for years. She tried to dismiss this as formality as she entered the conference room to begin the interview.

The interview team consisted of the superintendent, two school board members, and the high school principal. She knew them all well and had previously taught one of the board member's children. She breezed through the opening questions of the interview. Again, her mind raced between the reality of the interview and the *what ifs* that permeated her thoughts. She knew the district so well and was able to clearly articulate the needs, visions, and goals of both the school board and the elementary school, but what if that was not taken into consideration? She was very knowledgeable about curriculum, instruction, and assessment, but what if her knowledge was taken for granted and none of this mattered? She could not keep her mind from resurfacing with the mental picture of the camaraderie she noticed between the superintendent and the previous candidate. What if they were truly looking for a male principal? What if she was only being given a courtesy token interview? Nonetheless, she persevered.

She was careful in responding to each question so that her answers might be thoughtfully framed and politically correct, given the interview audience. The time she had spent rehearsing possible interview scenarios had paid off, as she was prepared for the questions she was asked. The interview questions were basic; she hadn't been thrown any curves. This almost seemed too easy. Surely, no other candidate could possibly have more on target, district-correct responses than she gave. She was a team player, she had proven it in the district, and now she was doing her best to convince the interview panel of how well she matched the needs of the school and of this leadership position. Why, then, did she have this feeling of desperation as the interview came to a close? She had answered every question succinctly and directly. She maintained good eye contact. She had given concrete examples and provided thorough, well thought out responses for each question. That was not it. She knew her responses to the interview were right on target. But she could feel the casualness in the air and it did not calm her. After the interview had been completed and she was escorted to the door, she had an uneasy feeling.

The superintendent thanked her for coming to the interview and closed the door behind her as she exited. In reflecting on her performance, she felt confident in her interview responses, but she felt as if she were somehow being placated. Perhaps it did not make any difference what her responses had been. It would be another two days before she received the perfunctory phone call thanking her for the interview and informing her that another person had been offered the principal job. The district grapevine had already told her that a friend of the superintendent from another district had accepted the offer. She later discovered that he was the candidate who had interviewed just before she did. She felt cheated out of the position. She felt that her years of dedication, hard work, and loyalty to the district were unimportant when it came to career advancement. She felt that she had been used but not valued by the district. Her thoughts ran the gamut from feeling totally discounted to thinking that perhaps she was not good enough for the job. She tried to put on a public face and shrug off the defeat. She must not let anyone know how hurt or disappointed she was. There would be a next time, and she would just try twice as hard.

Had she been a victim of *the good ol' boys' club*? Was she valued as a teacher but overlooked for leadership positions? Was her dedication and expertise being taken for granted? Can a female educator be a serious contender for a principal position in a school district where she has taught? Is this a common fate of women applicants for principal positions or a unique incident? Does this type of situation occur in school districts of varying populations from small rural districts to large urban districts or is it unique to a specific type of district? What are the factors that draw women into educational leadership positions or drive them from such positions? With over 80% of the elementary teaching force being female, why do women have so many hurdles to overcome in achieving leadership roles in elementary schools? What are the attributes of women in leadership and why is their presence important in promoting strong public education? Why does this matter and what makes it a topic worth researching? The answers to these and other questions were explored in this study on gender perceptions of women in elementary school principal positions.

Historical Perspective

A review of the literature on the topic of women in school administration is found predominantly in research done in the 1980s and 1990s. One of the leading researchers in this field is Charol Shakeshaft. She reminded us that historically women dominated the field of education, but primarily as teachers, not administrators. There is very little research focusing exclusively on women in school administration -- men receive the bulk of the billing in mainstream educational publications and data collection centers on the male perspective. In her 1989 seminal work *Women in Educational Administration*, Shakeshaft addressed women administrators' perceptions of gender issues in school administration and focused on the inattention to this problem in our society. She included her own research that utilized surveys, interviews, and case studies in an attempt to help fill the void of information on women in educational administration. Her findings also included information gleaned from personal experiences in teaching classes on the subject at the university level. Her publication goal was to compile what is known about women in administration and then "to use that information to challenge administrative theory and advice to be reconceptualized to include both women and men" (Shakeshaft, 1989, p. 12).

The Study

The scenario described above was taken from a qualitative doctoral research study of women in Colorado serving as elementary school principals (Gutsch, 2001). The study employed qualitative research methodology that triangulated data from surveys, a focus group discussion, and individual interviews.

The main research question sought answers, thoughts, and ideas regarding gender issues among women currently serving as elementary school principals. The survey was designed to seek background information on the principal, including her education, experiences, and career path. Questions were posed related to hiring, interviewing, being treated fairly as a principal, and whether gender issues had affected her personally or professionally. The survey also posed open-ended questions regarding her reasons for seeking a career in school administration, reasons for accepting a principalship, reasons for leaving a principalship, and roles and responsibilities of her job as a principal. Each respondent had the opportunity to include any additional comments they wanted to contribute.

This chapter will focus on the survey results related to why the respondents sought an administrative position, whether gender played a role during the hiring process, and whether gender issues have affected these women principals on a personal and/or professional level.

Survey Data Collection

Using the significant studies of researchers such as Joy (1998); Leach (2000); Marshall (1992); Schmuck (1986); and Shakeshaft (1989) as a foundation upon which to further survey and delve into the challenges and changes facing women in school administration, a research study was designed to investigate the perceptions of women elementary school principals in Colorado. The first phase of the research involved a survey that was mailed to all female elementary school principals in Colorado during the 1995-96 school year. The subjects for the research were obtained through a database maintained by the Colorado Department of Education, which lists the names and addresses of all principals in Colorado. This initial survey was broad in scope and was not limited by any constraints for geographic region, size of school, length of administrative service, or other specific characteristics. The intent was to reach a broad spectrum of candidates from which to elicit responses.

Each female elementary principal was invited to participate in the survey phase of data collection. An invitation to participate was mailed along with the survey, and a complimentary tea bag was included to both entice participation and to thank the participants for their time.

According to data published by the Colorado Department of Education, of the 831 elementary schools operating during the 1995-96 school year, 407 (49%) had female principals and 424 (51%) had male principals. An initial survey was mailed in the spring of 1996 to all 407 Colorado female elementary school principals, a time when principals are faced with multitudes of paper work and activities related to the end of the school year. Given the possibility that an earlier mailing might have increased the response rate, a second mailing was sent out during the winter of 1997, when principals have more discretionary time. The survey was sent to all women elementary school principals in Colorado except those who had responded to the first mailing of the prior year.

There were 850 elementary schools operating during the 1996-97 school year, with an equal number (425) having female and male principals. Codes were used to identify each survey and it was determined that 287 of the female principals either were new to the position or had not responded to the previous year's survey, so they were included in the second mailing. Overall, 241 female principals completed and responded to the two mailings, for a total response rate of 57% of 424 possible respondents. In addition, 69 (16%) of the female principals did not complete the survey, indicating on returned blank questionnaires that they feared retaliation, being identified, losing their jobs, or harassment. These non-responses speak loudly concerning the potential for discrimination based on gender and indicate a strong need to continue research in this area.

One of the hallmarks of qualitative research is to honor the voices of the respondents. According to Wolcott (1994):

> A major appeal of qualitative approaches is a newly perceived freedom to be more exploratory, less regimented. The approaches seem to offer an escape from the tyranny of statistics, control groups, tight treatment design, contrived variables (alienation, burnout, dependency, leadership, morale, organizational climate, power, satisfaction, stress), compulsive measurement, meaningless surveys. Instead, they invite opportunity for creative problem setting; responsive, even collaborative, fieldwork; and small-scale, manageable projects within the grasp of a lone investigator (p. 414).

In this study the voices of female principals were clearly heard through their responses to the survey.

Survey Findings

Career Paths of Respondents. Survey respondents had served an average of 6.9 years (SD = 4.6) as elementary school principals, ranging from 1 to 18 years (see Figure 1).

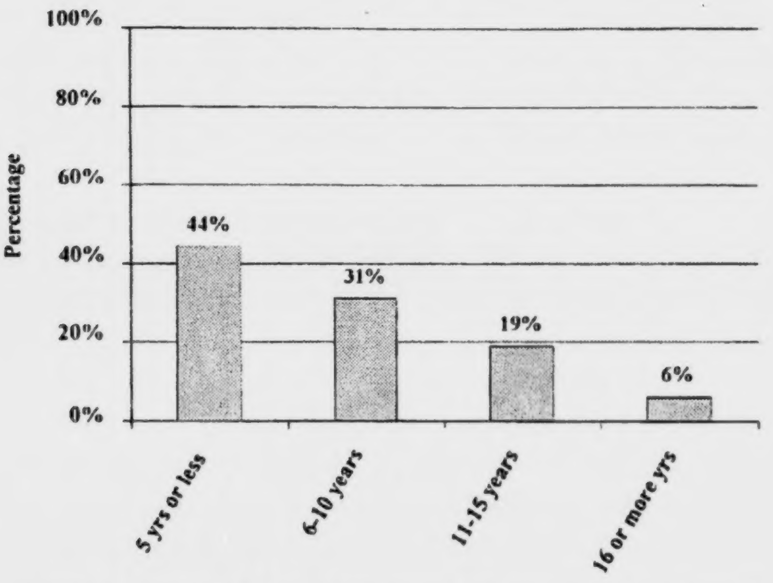

Figure 1. Number of years survey respondents have served as elementary principals. The average was 6.9 years (*SD* = 4.6), with a range from 1 to 18 years. (*n* = 241)

Figure 2 displays the percentage of respondents according to their experience as educators. The respondents averaged 18.8 years (SD = 4.8) from when they first entered the profession until they assumed the role of elementary principal, ranging from 5 to 31 years.

The educational positions held by the respondents shared many similarities, yet each was unique. The beginning career position in education for 92% of the respondents was in the role of classroom teacher. The roles experienced between teaching and the principalship included serving as special education teacher, counselor, dean of students, assistant principal, curriculum coordinator, teacher on special assignment, consultant,

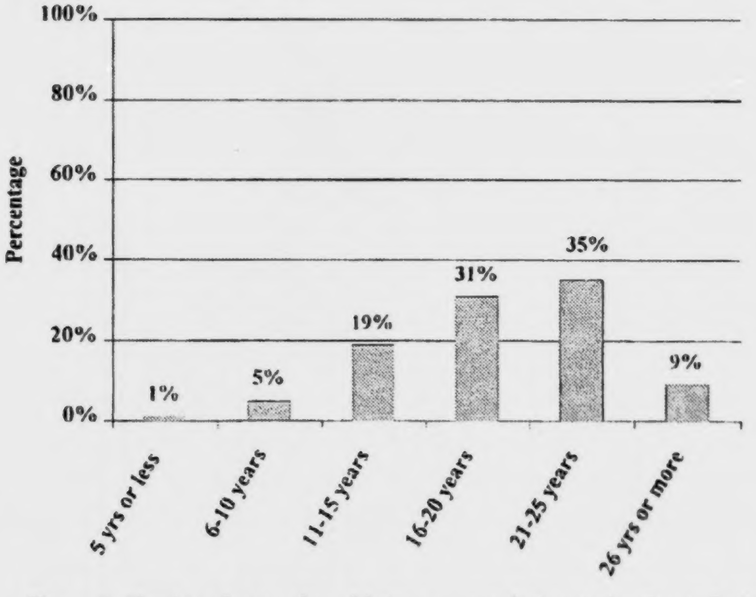

Figure 2. Number of years elapsed between respondents entering the profession and assuming the principalship. The average length was 18.8 years (*SD* = 4.8), with a range from 5 to 31 years. (*n* = 241)

personnel director, mentor teacher, bilingual education director, director of elementary education, and other central administration positions.

Reasons for Selecting a Career in School Administration. The elementary principals were asked why they chose to seek an elementary principalship. Figure 3 indicates that the respondents identified two primary reasons: to help improve the schools (26%) and because they felt they had the ability to lead a school (24%). Other reasons cited for going into school administration included being asked by other administrators to pursue school leadership (19%), wanting to influence the direction of the school (14%), believing they would enjoy the challenge (13%), and looking for a change from teaching (11%).

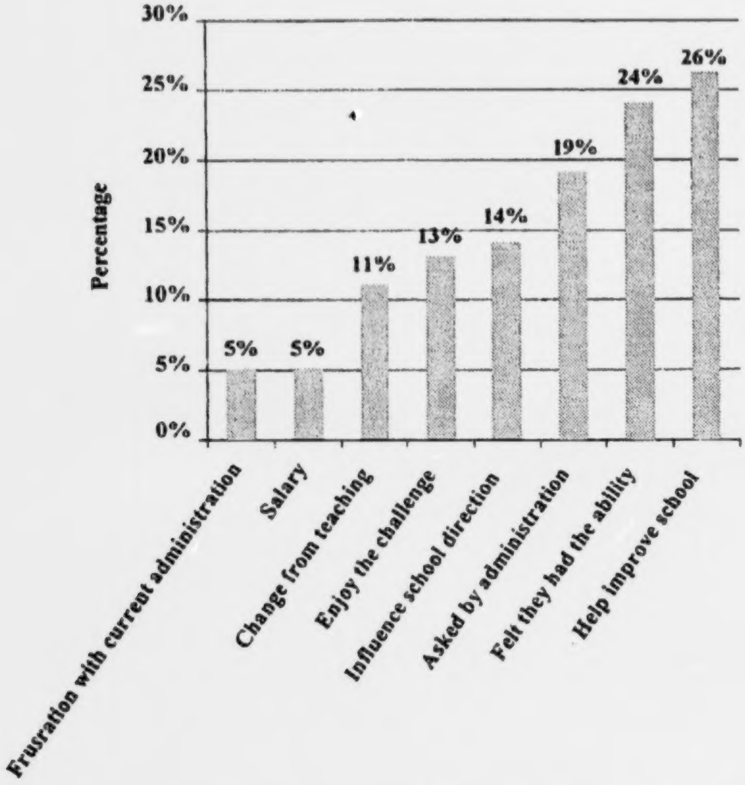

Figure 3. Reasons given by respondents for selecting a career as an elementary school administrator. ($n = 241$)

Gender Issues in the Hiring Process. When asked if they thought gender was an issue in the hiring process, 57% (137) of the respondents replied in the affirmative. Of the 43% (104) of respondents who reported that gender was not an issue in their hiring experiences, 86% said there were no issues involved at all. Interestingly, even though responding that gender was not an issue in their hiring, about 7% of these respondents still identified gender-related concerns, including that they felt they were hired as the token female and that their school districts typically hire men in educational leadership roles. Almost 2% felt that personality was more of a hiring factor than gender and an additional 2% said that while they did not consider gender to be an issue when hired as an administrator, they felt that gender played more of a role when they served as a teacher or coach. A few respondents even indicated that, "on the surface, being a woman played to my advantage."

Figure 4 details the comments made by the 57% (137) of respondents who reported that gender was an issue in hiring. About 24% felt that the school district was searching for a man and 20% indicated that they were hired as the token female. An additional 15% said they were hired for gender equity reasons, while, conversely, 2% indicated that they had interviewed with districts who implied they could not hire any more females because they had already filled their quota and had hired "too many females lately." Almost 15% of the respondents who considered gender to be an issue in their hiring experiences noted that they had interviewed in communities who did not want female principals in their schools. Similarly, 17% noted that the good ol' boys club remained a dominant force in districts where they had interviewed.

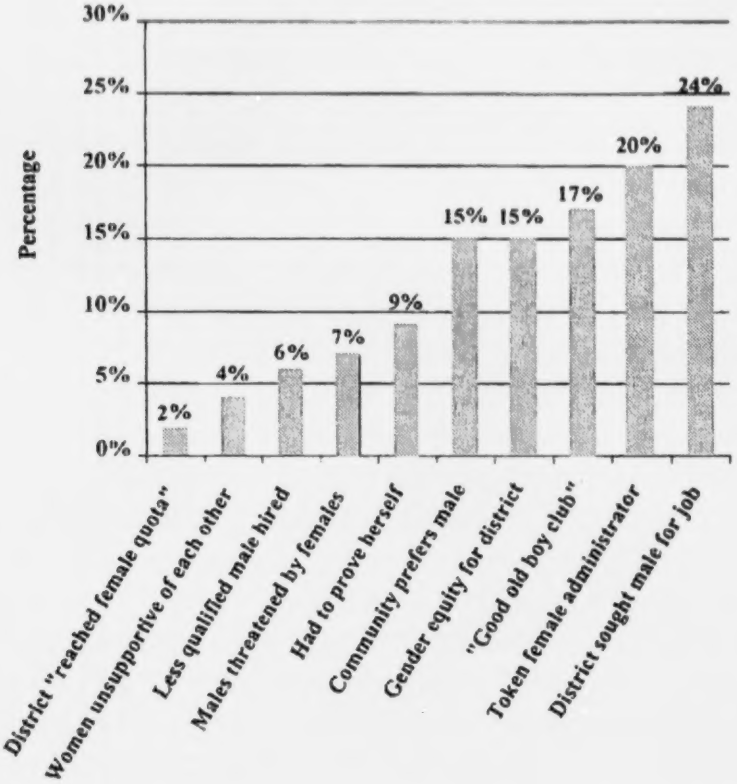

Figure 4. Reasons given by respondents indicating that gender was an issue in the hiring process. (*n* = 137)

Other comments that surfaced in the survey responses on the question regarding gender issues in hiring included the following: 9% of the female principals felt that they had to prove themselves in order to be accepted, 6% felt they had been passed over for male candidates who were less qualified, 7% indicated that they felt that males were threatened by females with a record of accomplishments and achievements, and nearly 4% of the respondents felt that women are much more judgmental of other women than men, and that men tend to offer more support to each other than women do.

Some respondents mentioned in various places throughout the survey that they considered ethnicity and race to play a larger role than gender in the operations of school districts.

Impact of Gender on Professional and/or Personal Lives. The respondents were asked if gender-related issues had affected them professionally or personally. This survey

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question evoked some of the strongest responses from the principals and also elicited the most comments. Approximately 70% (169) of the respondents indicated that gender issues had definitely affected their professional or personal lives.

Figure 5 reveals that the most prevalent response, given by 41% of the respondents, indicated that female principals still struggle within the public school system to be accepted as school leaders and, as a result, they are subjected to more intense scrutiny and demands than their male colleagues. Many respondents noted that they feel they must prove themselves beyond the standards for male administrators and that, even then, their leadership decisions and judgments are questioned. Under this category, many respondents mentioned relationships with parents and staff. Twenty-two percent of the respondents noted that parents see males as the authority figure and as better able to manage a school, particularly in the area of discipline. An additional 17% of the female principals found it more difficult to be accepted as an authority figure. A surprising 10% said that they felt parents were intimidated by female principals and that parents indicated they felt more comfortable having a male in the principal role. Another 10% indicated that the perception in their communities is that it is more difficult for females to balance a career and family and, therefore, females should not become principals.

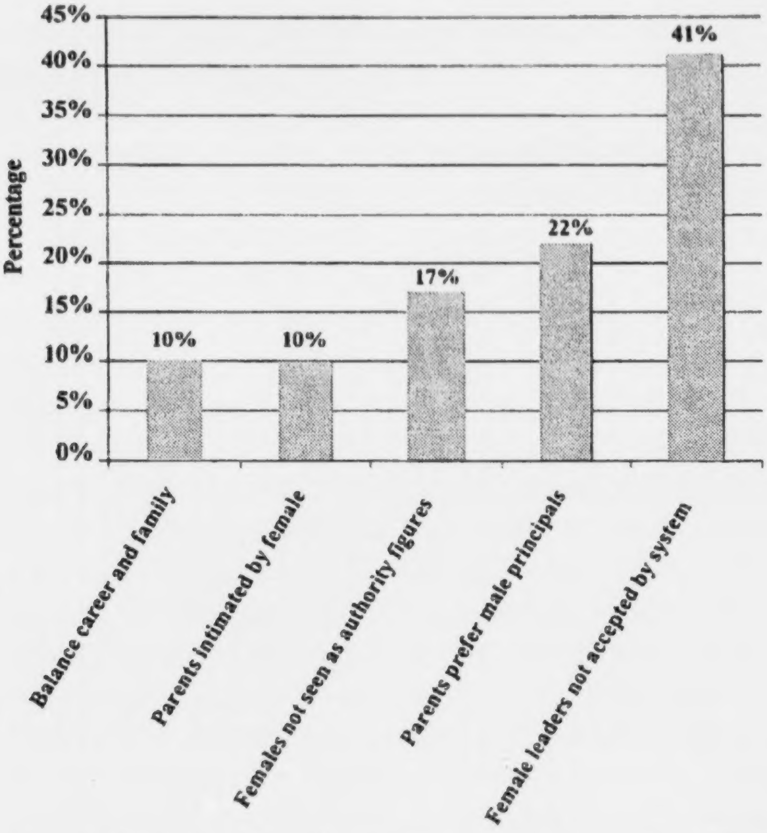

Figure 5. Gender-related issues identified by respondents as having affected their roles as elementary school administrators. (*n* = 169)

Some of the other comments given by respondents included:

- Female principals are not given salaries equal to male principals (3%)
- Female teachers are intimidated by female principals (5%)
- Male principals have the disciplinary advantage (2%)

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- Female principals have trouble retaining credibility among teachers because of their gender (6%)
- Male principals can be assertive and get away with it, but female principals who are assertive are classified as "being bitchy" (6%)
- Male administrators use "locker room talk" and "make passes" at female principals (1%)

Another familiar response echoed by 3% of the women, who also happened to be the only female principals in their districts, was that they considered their job to be constantly threatened by community members, parents, and district administrators because they were female. They felt everyone was watching and waiting for them to slip up and make a mistake in order to get rid of them. These female principals noted that they had trouble being accepted and feeling included on administrative teams. They felt much more excluded and isolated.

On the opposite side of this issue, of the 30% (72) who indicated that they had not experienced gender-related issues either professionally or personally, these respondents noted that they felt it was an advantage to be a female because at times they were given an easier role. They also mentioned that they had received a lot more positive than negative feedback in their roles as principals. One respondent wrote that she "didn't ever try to be one of the guys, so she was always treated like a lady." Another respondent commented that she doesn't experience gender-related problems because, "I'm radical enough they know I'd come after them."

Summary

Based on the information gathered in this research regarding the perceptions of practicing female principals in Colorado elementary schools, it appears that the presence of gender bias still exists. In some of these districts, it appears that the good ol' boys club is alive and well. According to many of the respondents, females are not given the same respect regarding their leadership abilities or potential. As one of the respondents noted, "It is thought that if a woman succeeds, it is perceived that she has done so at the expense of her family." Nearly 10% of the survey respondents commented that some men have difficulty working with female principals, and many went on to say that some women even have difficulty working with female principals. While only 7% felt that the field of school administration was more biased in the past, there is evidence to suggest that it is improving. Several respondents noted that the administrative field is more open and receptive to women as elementary principals than middle school or high school administration. One respondent replied that she was very comfortable as an elementary principal and felt supported, but she was sure her support would erode if she applied for any other role, especially that of superintendent.

The survey highlights the perceptions of the female elementary principals regarding gender issues. The following themes and patterns in their perceptions emerged:

- The good ol' boys club can work against female principals
- Males are viewed as stronger leaders, especially in the area of discipline
- Women are more scrutinized as leaders and frequently have to "prove themselves"
- Women do not tend to support other women the way men support each other
- Women are seen as weak leaders in certain areas, such as discipline, budget and finance, and mechanical-related issues such as maintenance and transportation
- Men deserve higher salaries because they are the natural breadwinners in the family; the salary is supplementary for a female educator
- Men are mentored and move to administrative positions more quickly and without as much scrutiny

- Communities often accept male principals more readily than female principals

The glass ceiling still exists in many communities.

Recommendations

Looking through the gender lens historically, great progress has been made for women in public school administration. It is worth noting that the most significant progress has been made at the elementary level, with more minimal progress at the secondary, superintendent, and higher education levels; therefore, additional studies in those areas would be warranted.

It is with renewed focus and intent that we move into the 21st century with purposeful goals toward supporting female administrators by considering the following recommendations:

- Encourage more women to seek administrative careers
- Help women develop networks that will support them
- Develop strong internship programs for aspiring administrators
- Encourage school districts to actively recruit and recommend female teachers for administrative positions
- Encourage school districts to partner with universities to sponsor educational leadership programs to build leadership skills and provide administrative training programs
- Develop cohort groups for educational leadership programs to support aspiring administrators
- Provide strong mentorship programs for new administrators
- Develop strong communication skills
- Identify strategies for effective interviewing skills
- Support women in attaining the necessary administrative credentials and district political support
- Develop strong interpersonal skills
- Develop skills in collaboration, shared-decision making, and conflict resolution
- Develop strong "gender-neutral" leadership skills; that is, traits traditionally denoted as specific gender strengths should be encouraged and developed in all leaders, regardless of gender
- Support gender equity instruction across all levels of education -- public schools, teacher education programs, and educational leadership programs
- Provide in-service training for school staff members regarding gender discrimination and the proper procedures to follow if it occurs

Conclusion

This research study began with the story of an anonymous female who had interviewed for an elementary principal position. After being passed over for the job by a less qualified male, the woman tried to put on her "public face" and shrug off the defeat. She was mentally preparing herself for "the next time" and she made a vow to herself to try twice as hard. This scenario has been played out over and over again throughout time. Women have proven themselves to be great at suffering silently, coping, making do, and "trying harder the next time."

This study has compiled the perceptions of Colorado women elementary principals. They are more than just anonymous statistics on a chart. They are people who are often overlooked, denied, given less, and expected to accept the status quo. The women in this study are not outliers, feminists, or troublemakers in any way. They are sisters, mothers, daughters, friends, aunts, and neighbors. They are women who help educate tomorrow's leaders. They are women whose greatest joys are the little things - hugs around the knees, crayon portraits, a six-year-old's published poem, a parent's gift of time as a classroom volunteer, and a special award for a dedicated teacher. The women who lead our elementary schools are all of this and more. Perhaps there will come a time when gender issues are truly no longer a factor and equality is reality.

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Chapter 19

Administrator Preparation Programs: Do Universities Advance or Inhibit Females?

Gay Goodman

The problem of gender bias in American education is systemic and prevalent at all levels. It cannot be solved by changing only one level of the system, nor can it be changed for only one constituent group to the exclusion of others. Universities do, however, constitute the one institution that touches almost every individual who participates in any way in each student's education.

It has been over 30 years since federal legislation was enacted and executive orders were issued prohibiting sex discrimination in the workplace. The landmark decision by the government to pass Title IX soon followed, and substantial funds were allocated for the purpose of eliminating gender bias in educational settings. In 1978, civil rights legislation was again expanded to facilitate this effort (Chamberlain, 1991). Still, gender inequities occur, even in professions such as public education where women have typically been and remain overrepresented. Dozens of books and countless journal articles have been devoted to this topic. As recently as last year, an entire issue of *Educational Administration Quarterly* was dedicated to this sensitive matter. Unfortunately, however, Mark Twain's classic comment regarding the weather also seems to be apropos of gender bias in educational administration: "Everybody talks about it, but nobody does anything about it."

Gender inequities occur not only in the overqualification and underemployment of women, but also in the underrepresentation of women in career advancement tracks. This is especially true in the upper echelons of public school administration, such as superintendencies (Natalie, 1992). This grim reality exists in spite of the fact that women enter the teaching profession in numbers far greater than men. Further, the number of women prepared in administrator education programs exceeds the number of men, even in doctoral-level training programs (Grady & Bohling-Phillipi, 1987; Gupton & Slick, 1996). A disproportionately small number of women, however, advance their careers to the administrative level, despite decades of empirical evidence indicating that women are equally competent when provided an opportunity to serve in administrative capacities (Andrews & Basom, 1990; Gross & Trask, 1976; McGrath, 1992). In addition, women participate in authoring over 80% of the scholarly works on the superintendency. Seemingly, they are making major contributions to the knowledge and theoretical bases for school district leadership (Bjork, 2000), yet a 1999 survey revealed that females hold only 20% of the top executive positions in American schools.

Many explanations have been posited for the inequities that confront women vying for educational leadership positions. Sadker and Sadker (1994) present convincing evidence that the roots of discrimination begin growing for women at a very early age. They maintain that public school practices discriminate against women from the very beginning. For example, boys dominate the interaction patterns in classrooms and their contributions are regarded more highly than those of their female counterparts. This

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practice results in the *smart boys* being acknowledged and reinforced. The smart girls, on the other hand, are least likely to be noticed. The school curriculum is also sexist. Not only is gender stereotyping still present in many texts, but women are seldom even mentioned in texts such as history books.

Sadker and Sadker (1994) elaborate on these ideas by stating that due to the treatment girls receive in school, they become inactive participants in their own educational process and, therefore, in their future careers. The end result is that women enter their professional lives as silent partners and let men do much of the speaking and interacting. In support of their argument, Sadker and Sadker cite the results of standardized tests that indicate an across the board decline in the test scores of females as they advance through the educational system. Presumably, this is a result of their conditioning by a biased educational system.

There are several factors contributing to the gender bias that exists in the American educational system. For one thing, the political climate changed dramatically in the United States in the 1980s. The country moved from making significant gender legislative gains in the 1970s to the administrations of Presidents Reagan and Bush, both of whom made political appointments and supported legislation that was unsympathetic to feminist causes. Most notable in this regard were their efforts in defeating the Equal Rights Amendment.

Another factor that contributes to gender bias against females is the unawareness of gender bias on the part of teachers. Numerous studies have shown even well intentioned teachers repeatedly and subtly discriminate against female students. They often register surprise and disappointment when shown videos of the gender stereotyping behavior that is evident in their teaching (Sadker & Sadker, 1994).

Other researchers have noted that the education profession itself poses significant barriers for women who aspire to positions of leadership. Recruitment practices, for example, are designed primarily to attract male applicants. Also, the interviewing process may filter out many female applicants. Search consultants and school board members -- most of whom are white males -- are usually responsible for identifying and hiring potential superintendents. It may be difficult, therefore, for a female applicant to shift the focus of the interview away from gender to concentrate instead on qualifications. Since they are responsible for hiring practices, these men may either consciously or subconsciously serve as gatekeepers who reserve upper echelon positions for their male counterparts. By doing so, they limit women's access to administrative opportunities (Tallerico, 1999; Timpano, 1976). Finally, men may be allowed to skip steps in their preparation or in their time spent *in rank*. Numerous studies point to gender role and leadership stereotyping that cast men in positions of leadership and authority. This gender bias negatively influences the ability of women to obtain positions as administrators in schools (Lynch, 1990; Ortiz & Marshall, 1988). These stereotypes are widely held not only by leadership personnel, but also by their constituent groups. Sadly, even women embrace these myths (Garland, 1991; Gotwalt & Towns, 1986). The end result is a system of subtle, oppressive practices that stifle the advancement of women in the American educational system.

Women also experience barriers that are unique, or internal, to themselves as females. Internal barriers may include geographic immobility and societal/familial roles as wives and mothers. These factors are often cited as possible explanations for women's underrepresentation as school executives. Another internal barrier seems to be the nonaggressive academic and work-related behavioral demeanor that result from the discrimination described above by Sadker and Sadker (1994). For example, women are likely to be less assertive in making overt moves toward career advancement and selling themselves. This lack of self-assertion may actually interfere with the ability of women to be attracted to and compete for administrative positions. This is, indeed, unfortunate because decades of research indicates that women possess many of the attributes believed to be desirable for administrators during this time of incredible pressure to reform public education (Bjork, 2000). Such attributes include the tendencies of women to be child centered, student achievement oriented, knowledgeable about instruction, and collaborative and facilitative, to mention just a few. In other words, women seem to have the qualities to get the job done, but not the qualities to get the job.

A puzzling dimension that arises repeatedly in the literature concerning the underrepresentation of females in school administration is the fact that many qualified women do not seem to aspire to these types of positions. Somewhere along the line, between enrolling in administrator education programs and obtaining employment, many women give up. Some studies have attributed these low aspirations to poor planning on the part of women (Bonuso & Shakeshaft, 1983; Gupton & Slick, 1996; Thomas, 1986).

Other studies cite the changing goals women articulate as they discover the job demands of administrative positions and still others blame a lack of positive role models, mentors, and support systems for the scarcity of female executives in schools (Coursen, 1989; Green, 1982; Gupton & Slick, 1996; Johnson, 1991; Rist, 1991).

The Role of the University in the Advancement of Females to Administrative Positions

Seldom mentioned in this discussion is the role that universities might play in perpetuating the repression of women who seek to become educational administrators. In fact, a thorough review of the literature failed to identify a single book or journal article devoted to the topic. This is somewhat perplexing in light of the fact that universities typically provide the initial exposure to professional leaders, role models, mentors, and networking systems for most persons seeking licensure as school administrators.

Most, if not all, female applicants must believe as they enter administrator preparation programs that there is a realistic possibility they will ascend to the ranks of administration after graduation. Additionally, they must view the university as the portal through which ascension takes place. Otherwise, why would they enroll? Statistics show that prospective female administrators enter and complete these programs in record numbers, more so than men, (Grady & Wesson, 1994) and that they obtain licensure. These facts would, seemingly, fuel their aspirations to become administrators, yet their representation in administrative posts is climbing at a comparative snail's pace. When they do advance to administrative positions, the positions tend to be in the lower echelons of administration and embody little power (Grady, LaCost, Wendel & Krumm, 1998). The questions, then, are: "What happens to them along the way? And might universities be partially to blame?"

The University Preparation

Over the course of the last several years, colleges of education have responded to the federal mandate to end discrimination against public school students who are members of minority groups by virtue of ethnicity, language, or disability. Most teacher and administrator education programs include at least one course that is devoted to serving the needs of students who are culturally or linguistically diverse or who are disabled. In fact, inclusion of this type coursework is mandated by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (2001) and is also required by many of the standards boards in academic disciplines. As a result, there has been a great awakening among educators as to the plight of these students. There is still tremendous room for improvement, but at least there is growing awareness in the educational profession regarding the educational needs and legal rights of these student populations.

In contrast, gender discrimination seems to get lumped in with general diversity disclaimers that may include other issues such as sexual preference, sexual harassment, environmental access, and the like. This is strange considering that half the students in most of these other categories also tend to be female. The discriminatory treatment of female students discussed by Sadker and Sadker (1994) is barely mentioned in introductory Educational Psychology textbooks and is seldom revisited in the curriculum except at the discretion of individual instructors. Glazer (1990) describes most administrator education programs as lacking the female perspective in their knowledge bases and curriculum content. Largely, these programs continue the cycle of male dominance and the exclusion of females by relying on an authoritative leadership style.

Equity issues are seldom addressed in the textbooks used as the basis for coursework in educational administration. Along this line, a recent study by Bjork (2000) analyzed the participation of female authors and co-authors of scholarly works on the topic of the school superintendency. This study concluded that while females participated in the publication of the overwhelming majority of the empirical studies (and other works) on this topic, they participated in writing only one of the eight textbooks authored in this area over the past decade. It appears as though the individuals who have the most to gain in influencing and altering administrator preparation programs are not in a position to do so.

In a recent article, Grogan (2000) stresses the need for women to become a part of the preparation process for school administrators. She proposes new leadership paradigms that would contribute to the well being of students as well as the attainability of administrative positions for women. Her suggestions include having females be at least partially responsible for training and mentoring potential female administrators. Unfortunately, there is a paradox that may limit the realization of Grogan's proposal. Few females ascend to upper echelon administrative positions and, therefore, few are available to influence the preparation of future administrators.

University Faculty as a Model for the Education Community

One possible explanation for the lack of positive leadership provided by universities is that universities provide no better role models for the fair and equitable treatment of women than do public schools. Many of the practices that have been discussed with regard to stereotyping and discriminating against women in the public school system are also readily apparent in statistics revealing how women fare in institutions of higher education. This is unfortunate considering that these are the same institutions that shoulder the major responsibility for preparing school administrators. A report recently published by the American Association of University Professors (Bellas, 2000-2001) indicates that female faculty are disadvantaged across the board in terms of the status of their positions and the money they earn.

Many similarities can be seen between the plight of female school administrators and the female professorate. For example, women enter the university as assistant professors in almost the same numbers as men (46%); yet, they constitute only 36% of associate professors, and only 21% of full professors (Bellas, 2000-2001). Thus, even though women are hired as assistant professors in almost the same proportion as men, somewhere along the line, attrition gets them. They never make it to being full professors and the farther up the administrative ranks one goes, the fewer females there are. The proportion of women in administrative positions such as chairs and deans is even lower. A recent study found that the ratio of male to female department chairs was one to ten; for deans, the ratio was found to be four females for every ten males (University of Denver's Women's Faculty Association, 1997). This seems to indicate that women in universities -- like women in public schools -- are not accessing higher-level posts. Women are best represented at parochial institutions and institutions without rank, and are most poorly represented at doctoral-level institutions. Even more discouraging is the fact that women in universities consistently earn less money than their male peers. This practice occurs in spite of the fact that it is clearly against the law. This salary disparity is pervasive across the nation and occurs at all levels of the higher education hierarchy. In fact, of the ten highest paying universities, only one pays women as much or more than men (Bellas, 2000-2001).

One important question is, "What accounts for the large percentage of female faculty who start careers as assistant professors, but never make it to the rank of professor?" The attrition and lack of career advancement of university women is a topic often swept under the carpet. In the past decade, however, greater attention has been given to this issue. In a recent article, Parks (1996) contends that embedded in the power network of the university is a structure that devalues the work of females, making it difficult for them to be promoted and tenured. In her book *Women in Academe*, Chamberlain (1991) summarizes a wide range of research studies that examine the perceived value of women's work in academic settings. She states, "The results of these experiments are singularly consistent: If people believe a woman was the creator, they rank it lower than if they believe a man was the creator. Both men and women do this; they devalue those items ascribed to females" (Chamberlain, 1991, p. 28). Whether or not the issues presented by Parks and Chamberlain or still other issues are to blame, at some level female faculty must find the academic environment to be, if not be biased and discriminatory, at least user-unfriendly. Otherwise, why would they leave or become stuck as career assistant and associate professors?

Regardless of the answer to the questions plaguing the female professorate, one problem is apparent. The academic climate in which prospective female public school administrators are currently being prepared is not particularly favorable for females. No wonder they get discouraged. They have very few role models and those they do have are not treated very well.

Less than two years ago, the prestigious Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) admitted to short-changing women faculty members in everything from providing them smaller offices to granting them lower pay (Vest, 1999). MIT has reportedly taken steps to correct the salary inequities. Until all other universities follow suit, their faculties will not provide very good role models for women preparing for administrative positions in the public schools. Even worse, if the review of research presented by Chamberlain (1991) is accurate, female university students are likely to have their own academic work undervalued and unfairly evaluated.

University Faculty as a Source for Supporting, Mentoring, and Networking

One of the strategies advocated for correcting the underrepresentation of women in administration is the provision of a support system for mentoring and networking among members of the profession (Courson, 1989; Johnson, 1991; Swiderski, 1988). The efficacy of this idea has been substantiated by studies in which successful administrators point to the positive contributions made by their own mentors (Garland, 1992, Gupton & Slick, 1996; Myers, 1992). Gupton and Slick (1994) address the need to develop an effective system of this nature to cultivate female school administrators. They point to the lack of such a system as the missing link in the emergence of female leaders in the education profession.

Universities should be an ideal resource for providing these mentoring and networking support services. Why, then, are they not more effective at doing so? One factor might be that many administrators and faculty members, even females, have the misconception that these services are not needed. Both males and females in higher education may be totally unaware of the gender inequities that still exist in the American university structure. They may believe that these inequities were taken care of years ago! After all, gender discrimination has been against the law for over thirty years, and there were initial efforts made at equity adjustments in the 1970s. If people are not aware that the problem exists, they may not take the time to make the kinds of detailed comparisons in which inequities are likely to be revealed. If concerned faculty believe that recruitment and retention policies are gender-neutral, they will see no need for a structure of networking or mentoring that promotes and ensures fair treatment and advances the careers of women.

Other factors may be embedded in the previously discussed issues regarding gender bias in higher education. Unfortunately, female faculty members who might be potential mentors do not fare very well in their own professional environment. Their outcomes are even worse in doctoral degree-granting institutions, where most prospective administrators complete advanced graduate work. Women faculty members in these institutions, therefore, are not likely to have benefited from an effective mentoring model, an elaborate support system, or an established network to which they can refer when assisting others. If they had, they would undoubtedly have fared better themselves. Consequently, there is a shortage of university women available to serve as role models, mentors, and networkers.

Another factor might be that some of the women who are successful leaders in their fields emerge in spite of their gender. Researchers point to the tendency of successful women to defeminize their personal characteristics. In addition, some females advance by dissociating themselves from other women in the work force and gain entry to the profession through traditionally male networks (Bell, 1995). These women often avoid associations and other professional affiliations that are dedicated to supporting and networking on behalf of other women, and they may be uncomfortable in discussing the repression they have experienced in a gender biased work environment (Skrla & Benestante, 1998). Infrastructures of this type hardly encourage a positive university climate for supporting and empowering female students in their plights to ascend the school leadership ladder.

Female faculty who have been unsuccessful in surmounting gender bias can certainly relate to the status of women who cannot successfully combat gender bias in public education, but they are not in a position to help. They are not able to figure out how to beat the system themselves, so they remain silent. They are fearful of being perceived as whiners or of creating the illusion that they really are less competent by letting it become known that they are paid less. As a result, they make face saving excuses for their failures to be recognized, excuses such as saying that they are not prepared or do not have time to apply for promotions or meritorious salary increases. Then they go on as though nothing is wrong.

Certainly, many male faculty members are fair-minded individuals who seek to promote women's careers. They do not, however, occupy an ideal vantage point for experiencing and responding to the realities of discrimination against women. The practices that serve to repress career advancement among women operate in covert and subtle ways and, therefore, are not readily apparent even to those who may be the victims of them, much less to their male colleagues who are not directly affected. Attitudes regarding the devaluation of women's scholarly efforts are rooted in such bigotry that they are unspeakable and may even operate at a subconscious level. All parties, even women, go along pretending that all is fair and square in salary and promotion decisions, that these decisions are based on very objective criteria, and that the academic emperor is really wearing new clothes. For a man (or a woman for that matter) to disagree creates vulnerability on three fronts. First, speaking out against gender discrimination is highly frowned upon. The university social climate is one in which faculty are openly discouraged from speaking about inequities. Second, if a faculty member does become aware of a double standard in the appraisal of men and women and acts as the defender of females' credentials, that individual may be accused of being less scholarly or having lower standards than the professor who is devaluing them. Finally, the climate of the university is competitive, not collaborative. By advocating for a woman, a male faculty member might run the risk of disadvantaging himself. So, the system perpetuates itself.

Summary and Recommendations

The problem of gender bias in American education is systemic and prevalent at all levels. It cannot be solved by changing only one level of the system, nor can it be changed for only one constituent group to the exclusion of others. The problem it too big and universities perpetuate the cycle not only by their treatment of female students and faculty, but also by the educational preparation that they provide for school personnel. Universities do, however, constitute the one institution that touches almost every individual who participates in any way in each student's education. Therefore, a good first step in combating gender bias in society, as well as in advancing the careers of female school administrators, might be the elimination gender bias at all levels in American higher education. This institution, usually regarded as a bastion of liberalism, still has considerable room for improvement in the fair treatment of female employees and in the academic and vocational preparation of female students. A three-pronged effort in this direction might include the following strategies:

- Improve the university climate for female students by:
  - ➢ Conducting blind studies in university classrooms to identify double standards in the treatment of females and the evaluation of their academic work.
  - ➢ Requiring mandatory training for faculty members regarding the legality of gender bias, similar to the training that has been provided related to sexual harassment.
- Improve the university climate for female employees by:
  - ➢ Developing and disseminating truly objective criteria for salary and promotion decisions to ensure that women's work is not undervalued.
  - ➢ Valuing research in women's studies and other traditionally female areas to the same extent that scholarly work in other areas is valued. Such areas might include classroom teaching and teacher education.
  - ➢ Immediately establishing and monitoring written guidelines for rectifying any inequities in salaries, the disbursement of research monies, the assignment of student assistants, the allocation of office space, and the like.
  - ➢ Analyzing faculty workloads to determine if women are disadvantaged in terms of limiting their scholarly productivity.
  - ➢ Institutionalizing higher education administrator education programs and requiring this training for individuals seeking posts as university-level administrators.
- Improve educator preparation programs by:
  - ➢ Infusing gender issues throughout the curriculum used in preparing prospective teachers and administrators.
  - ➢ Including case studies for use as training profiles in courses for prospective teachers and administrators. These case studies should present concrete scenarios of equitable and inequitable treatment of females in a variety of settings.
  - ➢ Establishing university-based mentoring programs through which promising females are shepherded into positions of leadership.
  - ➢ Providing school-based internship experiences so that prospective employers can benefit from the qualifications and competence of prepared female administrators.
  - ➢ Establishing a network or professional organization consisting of female graduate students and alumni who are educated as school administrators.

- Forming a coalition of female faculty and school administrators to participate in the preparation process and curriculum selection for administrator education programs to ensure that female perspectives and leadership styles are included.

When some of these ideas are institutionalized in universities across the country, the systemic cycle that woman encounter when they begin school and are plagued by throughout their careers will be broken. By educating all teachers to teach female students in an unbiased way, a new generation of women will feel differently about themselves and their roles. They will also behave differently and encounter a different kind of university and, ultimately, a different social climate in which to work. As a society, America will be doing more about the problem of gender inequity than just talking about it. And women will not only experience much more equitable work environments, but will also realize greater potential for career advancement in both universities and public schools.

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Chapter 20

Women in Academia: A Review of Women's Status, Barriers, and Leadership Issues

Christiane Herber

Women have not advanced in the ranks of academia and,
although American universities are graduating more women than men,
women in academia have not earned status comparable to their numbers.
In fact, despite appreciable gains made in the attainment of Ph.D. degrees,
women's representation on U.S. faculties has remained unchanged.

Having grown up in Europe and the United States during the 1970s and 1980s, glass ceiling is a term I was often exposed to as a young adult. The notion of women facing this invisible barrier in the workforce and the problems it created for female professionals were prevalent topics in various areas of discourse. More recently, however, the term glass ceiling seems to have disappeared from popular vocabulary. Western societies appear to regard today's work climate as more encouraging and supportive of women, and the increasing numbers of women receiving baccalaureate and graduate college degrees and attaining professional positions seem to support this view.

Does this mean the glass ceiling has disappeared? Is the glass ceiling no longer a concern? As a young scholar aspiring to advance in the ranks of academia, I set out to find answers to these questions, focusing on women's advancement in higher education. Through my research I soon learned that, in general, women have not had the same success as men in advancing to higher levels of professional status (Bain & Cummings, 2000). More specifically, according to Glazer-Raymo (1999), women have not advanced in the ranks of academia and, although American universities are graduating more women than men, women in academia have not earned status comparable to their numbers. In fact, several researchers have noted that despite appreciable gains made in the attainment of Ph.D. degrees, women's representation on U.S. faculties has remained unchanged (Aguirre, 1987; Granger, 1993). The glass ceiling, I therefore concluded, is ever present.

Having reached this conclusion, I was determined to take a more in-depth look at the issues affecting women's advancement in academia. The following sections provide a review of women's status at American universities, including ranks, salaries, and job satisfaction, as well as a discussion of barriers to women's professional success as outlined in recent leadership research. More specifically, this paper will focus on societal perceptions of women leaders and the resulting gender role expectations, dilemmas, and paradoxes women face in their pursuit of leadership and professional status.

The purpose of this research is to create an awareness of the problems that keep women from gaining equal status in academia despite having the same credentials as men. Hopefully, this awareness will turn into sensitivity to traditional gender role expectations and perceptions and, in turn, create deserved opportunities for qualified women academics. The information presented in this chapter will be valuable not only to women in the pursuit of an academic career, but also to women seeking careers outside of academia as well as to those who hire and work with women.

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Women's Status in Higher Education

Glazer-Raymo (1999) analyzed data from the National Center for Education Statistics and reported that between 1975 and 1993 the percentage of women faculty grew at every rank. However, a closer look at the data reveals that more men than women were full professors and more women were assistant and associate professors. In fact, Glazer-Raymo noted that the proportion of women has grown much faster at the lower ranks than among senior faculty. In 1996, for example, 62% of women faculty were either part time or non-tenure track, with less than two-fifths of all women faculty on the tenure track. In addition, only women in private four-year institutions held more full-time positions than part-time positions and women made up the majority of faculty only in private two-year institutions.

More recent data from the *Digest of Education Statistics* (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2000) confirms these trends. According to this report, in 1997 the difference between the number of men and women full-time faculty was greatest at public four-year institutions (199,316 men, or 67%, versus 97,329 women, or 33%) and smallest at private two-year institutions (4,626 men, or 54%, versus 3,940 women, or 46%). With regard to tenure, the report indicates that in 1998-99, 71% of male faculty members were employed full time with tenure, whereas only 52% of women were employed in full-time tenured positions. The tenure gap is even more pronounced at universities, with 26% more men than women designated as full-time tenured faculty. This number decreases at two-year institutions, where 7% more men are full-time tenured faculty than are women (NCES, 2000).

With regard to wages, Glazer-Raymo (1999) offers information on pay gaps between men and women across positions as well as across institutions, and a number of research studies and government reports provide data that support these discrepancies. Averaging salaries for men and women out of a total of 170 positions, Ott (1997), for example, reported that for every dollar a woman earned, a man earned between one to thirty-nine cents more. Olsen, Maple, and Stage (1995) also reported that even within the ranks of distinguished research professors, female professors earned $27,000 less on average than their male colleagues.

The *Digest of Education Statistics* (NCES, 2000) indicates a pay gap of 10,627 constant dollars when comparing salaries for male and female full-time faculty in 1998-99. Furthermore, in its March 2000 Statistical Analysis Report, a report generated from the 1993 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty, the National Center for Education Statistics reported lower average salaries for full-time female faculty than full-time male faculty in 1992. That same year, 66% of female faculty earned base salaries of less than $40,000, compared to 37% of male faculty. The report also stated that 19% of male faculty earned $60,000 or more in 1992, while only 5% of female faculty did so (NCES, 2000). Additionally, several researchers have shown that female faculty receive less salary than male faculty, even when variables such as rank, tenure, structural factors, and human capital factors are controlled (Bellas, 1993; Langton & Pfeffer, 1994; Toutkoushian, 1998). Obviously, unequal pay for equal work is a problem that has not disappeared in academia and still needs to be addressed.

Job satisfaction studies further illustrate that women have not earned the same status as men in academia. Finkelstein, Seal, and Schuster (1998) surveyed new and senior faculty cohorts on job satisfaction and perceptions of fair treatment and their findings indicate less equity for women and minority faculty. Job satisfaction was rated much lower by women than by men, with only 57% of women senior faculty agreeing somewhat or strongly that they were treated fairly, compared to 84% of male senior faculty. Similarly, 63% of new women faculty reported perceptions of fair treatment, compared to 82% of new male faculty.

Likewise, the University of Nebraska Task Force on Gender Equity (1997) reported that about 90% of men on all four University of Nebraska campuses believed that the climate for women is supportive and that women have equal chance to advance as faculty. Interestingly, only about 70-80% of the women on the four campuses regarded the climate as supportive and only 62-66% thought opportunities for advancement were equal to those of men. Finally, according to Aguirre (1987), both women and minority faculty perceive themselves to be victims of salary inequities and a biased reward system. Aguirre further states that male faculty members often discredit feminist research, and women consistently report having to assert their legitimacy as academics. Clearly, women are dealing with subtle discrimination issues that prevent them from advancing into higher ranks.

The Dilemma

Several obstacles to women's advancement into higher-level positions have been identified in the literature. One of these barriers is society's perception of women as less authoritative and forceful than men. In fact, when reviewing most of the relevant literature of the 1990s, one notices that women professionals have been characterized as more caring, democratic, and reform-minded than their male counterparts (Chase, 1995; Grogan, 1996). Effective leadership, however, has consistently been found to require traits stereotyped as masculine, such as autocracy, forcefulness, strength, rationality, self-confidence, competitiveness, and independence (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989; Powell & Butterfield, 1979, 1989; Schein, 1973).

In light of society's perceptions, as well as the leadership research, women may attempt to gain status by expressing masculine traits. There is, however, a catch. Peers and associates often criticize women who violate traditional gender role expectations. In fact, several researchers have found that women leaders acting outside of the feminine gender role are evaluated less favorably than women who act within their expected role (Eagly, Klonsky, & Makhijani, 1992; Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Women, therefore, face a real paradox in their efforts to become effective leaders.

Leadership Research

A multitude of factors influencing women's advancement within organizations have been identified in the literature on leadership. With particular interest in societal perceptions of men's and women's traits and expected roles and the impact these have on women in leadership, this section will focus on the following topics: attitudes toward women in leadership, sex role stereotyping, and gender roles in leadership studies.

Attitudes Toward Women in Leadership

Historically, women wanting to gain access to positions of leadership have been dependent on men in positions of authority to hire and promote them. One problem with this dependency was that males did not perceive women to be as capable as men. A classic study by Bowman, Worthey, and Greyser (1965) examined this problem by asking male executives to rate their attitudes toward female executives. The men's attitudes toward women executives were found to be in the mildly favorable to mildly unfavorable range and, while they believed that women in management had no appreciable negative effects on efficiency and production, one-third of the men believed that females in managerial positions had a bad effect on employee morale and about half reported women to be temperamentally unfit for management. Further, 81% of the men reported feeling uncomfortable with a female boss, while only 27% reported that they felt comfortable working for a woman. Gilmer (1961) reported similar findings, noting that over 65% of the male managers in his study felt women would be inferior to men in supervisory positions.

Additionally, researchers have shown that women are also believed to be less competent than men in settings outside of the corporate environment. Goldberg (1968), for example, asked college students to evaluate professional articles on value, persuasiveness, profundity, writing style, and competence. Identical papers received higher ratings when students believed that a man was the author and lower ratings when students believed the author to be a woman. Similarly, Pheterson, Kiesler, and Goldberg (1971) found that students rated the same artistic work less favorably when the artist was identified as a woman instead of a man. In fact, female artists were only evaluated more favorably if they were described as having a full-time job in addition to being an artist and having attained outside recognition. Women, therefore, not only seemed to be evaluated more critically, but accomplishments had to be highly exceptional to receive recognition. In another study that was designed to explore attitudes toward females in academia, Fidell (1970) asked the chairmen of 147 psychology departments to rate the credentials of potential faculty members whose names were randomly assigned to be male and female. The mean faculty rank that the chairmen recommended offering was significantly lower for females than for males with identical credentials.

The results of these early studies reflect social attitudes toward women that created barriers to women's professional progress. Other examples of perceptions that have impacted the ability of women to attain positions of leadership are that women are less able to cope with crises situations, make social interactions in the work environment difficult, and require more sick leave due to pregnancy and child rearing obligations (O'Leary, 1974). Moreover, several myths have fueled the general belief that women are less committed to their jobs than men. One example of these false notions is that women only work to supplement their husband's income, not because they are self-sufficient. Almost 30 years ago, Crowley, Levitin, and Quinn (1973) reported that 40% of their female sample was economically independent, yet the myth persisted. Crowley, et al. also found no support for other popular myths, such as that women are more concerned with the socio-emotional aspects of their jobs, that they do not work unless they have to for economic reasons, that they are more content with an intellectually undemanding job, that women are less concerned with their work being self-actualizing, and that they are less concerned with getting ahead.

As can be seen from these examples, the general assumptions that women are less competent, less skilled, and less qualified have been verified to have had a direct effect on women's advancement in the workforce. Additionally, more recent research exploring alternate causes of societal gender inequity has shown that perceptions and beliefs have influenced women's progress into positions of leadership even beyond the 1960s and 1970s. Using a more cognitive approach to sex typing, several theories have been formulated to explain this societal phenomenon and researchers have related these findings to the study of leadership. The following sections include summaries of the main theories on sex role stereotyping, as well as the literature on these theories in accordance with leadership research.

Sex Role Stereotyping

At the base of gender stereotyping lays the concept of cognitive schemas. "Cognitive schemas are assumed to be centrally involved in the processing of information, providing relatively stable criteria that enable a person to interpret a wide range of information in meaningful ways, not only at the perceptual level but also in relations to memory" (Feather, 1984, p. 604). According to Feather, people develop a cognitive schema relating to gender. This gender schema is assumed to have implications for processing information about one's own gender and gender in general. Furthermore, according to Bem (1974), sex typing results in part from one's concept of self being assimilated into the gender schema. Bem further asserts that this gender schema becomes a prescriptive standard or guide, according to which individuals regulate their behaviors in order to fit into culture's definitions of maleness and femaleness.

Building on these concepts, Eagly (1987) proposed her theory of gender roles. At the heart of Eagly's theory lies the notion that gender stereotypes are formed by observations of people's daily life activities. If a particular group of people is observed to engage in a particular activity, then the characteristics required to carry out this activity are likely to be regarded as typical of that group (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Therefore, if women are observed to engage in activities such as child rearing, then as a group they are likely to be characterized as nurturing and caring. These types of stereotypes may then cause women and men's distribution into differing social roles in society (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Within these social roles, men are generally found in roles with greater power and status, whereas women are concentrated in the role of primary homemaker (Eagly, 1987).

Gender roles are further grounded in the belief that women and men actually differ and should differ in their traits and behaviors. Eagly noted that researchers examining these stereotypic beliefs have revealed a tendency in people to expect men to exhibit high levels of "agentic" (Eagly & Karau, 1991, p. 686) or masculine attributes, such as being independent, masterful, assertive, and competent. Women, on the other hand, are expected to possess high levels of "communal" (Eagly & Karau, 1991, p. 686) or feminine attributes, including being friendly, unselfish, concerned with others, and emotionally expressive (Bem, 1974; Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Karau, 1991; Eagly & Steffen, 1984;).

Individuals also perceive themselves to possess gender-specific attributes. Men, therefore, typically believe that they possess mainly masculine characteristics and see themselves as aggressive, forceful, strong, rational, self-confident, competitive, and independent. Women generally perceive themselves to possess mostly feminine attributes, such as being warm, kind, emotional, gentle, understanding, aware of others' feelings, and helpful (Feather, 1984; Schein, 1973). The resulting assumption, then, is that men and women actually behave according to these gender role expectations and perceptions, and research on sex differences and gender stereotypic tendencies has confirmed this assumption. In fact, men and women have been found to differ in various social situations, with men engaging in agentic behaviors and women engaging in communal behaviors (Eagly & Karau, 1991).

This tendency for men and women to act according to expected gender roles has important implications for women's professional advancement because masculine traits have repeatedly been shown to be associated with effective leadership whether by men or women (Brenner et al., 1989; Chusmir & Koberg, 1991; Kruse & Wintermantel, 1986). In the next section, a review of research that has linked sex role stereotyping and the study of leadership is presented.

Gender Roles and Leadership Studies

In several studies, researchers have demonstrated that participants perceive a successful manager as having male characteristics (Powell & Butterfield, 1979, 1989; Schein, 1973, 1975; Schein & Mueller, 1992). Schein (1973, 1975), for example, found that male and female mid-managers perceived both successful managers and men to possess masculine characteristics, such as leadership, self-confidence, objectivity, and aggressiveness. Women, on the other hand, were not perceived to possess these characteristics.

Interestingly, male managers' perceptions have not changed much over time, as a replication of Schein's original study demonstrated. After 15 years, Brenner, et al. (1989) found that men still perceive successful mid managers to possess those characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments commonly ascribed to men, despite research suggesting that females are just as successful as males in most leadership situations (Cann & Siegfried, 1990). In 1993, Hackman, Hills, Paterson, and Furniss again found that subordinates perceived masculine characteristics as effective with regard to leadership, whereas feminine characteristics were not seen as effective.

Sex role stereotyping has also been shown to affect the evaluation of leaders. Rosen and Jerdee (1973), for example, asked college students to evaluate specific supervisory actions. The "reward style action" (p. 46), which stressed incentives for improved performance, was rated more effective for male than for female supervisors. The "friendly-dependent style action" (p. 46), which stressed a friendly approach of asking for performance improvement, was rated higher for both male and female supervisors, if the subordinates were of the opposite sex. Similarly, Bartol and Butterfield (1976) demonstrated that both the sex of the person being evaluated as well as the sex of the evaluator influences the evaluation of leaders. In this study, gender role stereotyping was illustrated as female managers received higher scores on the leadership style characterized by consideration, whereas male managers received higher scores for initiating structure.

Researchers investigating actual leader behavior have found that males and females are very similar in leadership ability (Boulgarides, 1984; Donnel & Hall, 1980; Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani, 1995). In a meta-analytic review of 162 studies, Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995) found that men and women generally receive similar leadership evaluations, except for cases where women carry out their leadership in stereotypically masculine styles. This effect was even more pronounced when women's leadership style was considered autocratic and directive. Additionally, the devaluation of women leadership was stronger when women leaders occupied male-dominated roles and when evaluators were men.

Women's adoption of masculine leadership styles may seem paradoxical, yet it is consistent with Kanter's (1977) organizational-structure theory, also called situation-centered perspective. According to this theory, gender differences in leader behavior are a product of men and women's differing positions within organizations. Since women more often hold lower positions with less power, they behave in ways that reflect their lack of power and their dependence on others. Men, on the other hand, behave in ways that are consistent with more powerful positions. Kanter further reasons that men and women behave similarly when they hold equivalent positions and status.

Therefore, the crucial factor in individuals' ratings of men and women's leadership ability seems to be their perception of leader behavior, not the actual behavior that has taken place (Kolb, 1999; Shockley-Zalabak, Staley, & Morley, 1988;). Nieva and Gutek (1981), for example, suggested that "gender role spillover" or the "carryover into the workplace of gender-based expectations for behavior" affects perceptions of leadership (p. 58). These researchers hold the perspective that gender roles cause people to have different expectations for male and female leaders. In support of this concept, social scientists have suggested that female leaders have conflicting feelings about their roles as leaders due to the stereotyping of good managers and leaders in masculine terms (Bass, 1981; Kruse & Wintermantel, 1986; O'Leary, 1974). It is important, therefore, to study people's perceptions because these perceptions will seriously impact how leadership behavior, ability, and effectiveness will be rated.

Future Implications

As can be seen from this literature review, studies on gender roles and sex role stereotyping reveal that traditional gender expectations and perceptions continue to persist even in today's modern society. Moreover, leadership studies suggest that these perceptions directly influence women in their pursuit of careers, producing work atmospheres where women are seen as less deserving of rewards and recognition when compared to their male counterparts. Since these perceptions seem to be at the heart of a range of issues affecting women's advancement, it is essential to create awareness and sensitivity to our societal tendencies. The first step, therefore, is to realize how powerful our beliefs and expectations are in affecting daily interactions. I hope that the research presented here will serve that purpose and, in turn, support women in their attempt to venture into the higher ranks of academia and leadership.

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Chapter 21

The Politics of Being Married in Academe: Strange Brew

Jo Blase
Joseph Blase

As a result of our personal relationship, we have been considered
by a few as an illegitimate coalition in departmental politics,
even though other professors oftenshare our thinking.
The politics of being married are, in turn,
related to the politics of gender.
We sensed that good ol' boy sexism -- perhaps inadvertent sexism --
was responsible for the recalcitrance exhibited.

Recently, we began a conversation with eight of our friends, four couples who, like us, are professors working together in graduate schools of education. They work in the north, south, midwest, and far west of the United States. In our conversation, we were discussing the experiences of partners in life who are also collaborating scholars in academe. The question on the table was this: What is the essence of our unusual experience, one of being married to the academy? We were not surprised when these good friends and colleagues enthusiastically revealed the various joys, frustrations, advantages, and challenges of their lives as married colleagues. Our conversations were interspersed with laughter and poignant stories and with the acknowledgment of the inevitable interaction of things personal and things institutional.

We listened, for example, as one couple explained the difficulties of serving together on doctoral examination committees; indeed, differences in their philosophical orientations and interpretations of fundamental academic issues created disagreements between them that spilled over into their personal lives. One spouse from another couple stated that she reveled in the opportunity to learn from her husband, who is more advanced in the professorate, and that both of them realized there were some disquieting competitive urges between them. All of the couples with whom we talked were comforted by the high degree of understanding their partners had about work issues, and all shared touching and even funny stories from the experience of working and living together. Not surprisingly, they also acknowledged the incredible importance of "political" considerations in their respective situations, a topic to which we will return shortly.

Although we are professors and are married, we are not exactly like any of the couples we refer to above. In addition to being married and both holding the rank of professor, we work in the same college and in the same graduate department. We have even, on occasion, taught the same courses. In addition, we do most of our work - analyzing our research data, writing, and advising students -- together and in our home, which is conveniently located just five minutes from the university campus. We even have (almost) the same name, Joe Blase and Jo Blase, which leads to confusion as well as the occasional silliness and hijinx. For example, a call from a student newly admitted to our program might go something like this:

"May I speak to *Jo(e)?*"

Dr. Blase and Dr. Blase are Professors in the Department of Educational Leadership at the University of Georgia in Athens.

"Which one?" is the reply.

"Jo(e) *Blase*," the innocent says.

"Which one?"

"*Dr.* Jo(e) Blase."

"Which one?"

"The *professor*." The student is now getting suspicious.

"Which one?" we persist.

"The professor in *educational leadership*."

By this time we begin to feel sorry for the student, who finally resorts to some variation of gender description (e.g., "The *man*." or "I thought it was a *female*.").

Far from being problematic, confusion about our joint identity is cause for laughter. For their part, the students devise simple ways to tell us apart, the most common of which is *He Blase* and *She Blase*. We have often seen veteran students grin and tease new students when they stumble into this predicament.

Interestingly enough, students appear to enjoy both our similarities and our differences: they take full advantage of our being doubly accessible and pose their questions to whichever one of us is most readily available. They occasionally explore and even point out differences they notice between our respective interpretations of academic matters, the exposure of which is often an interesting experience for us as well! Students also notice and applaud our passion, sensitivity, mutual respect, common intellectual pursuits, stability, and accessibility. Our students, all of whom are enrolled in advanced degree programs, have told us many times that they consider our home to be a supportive oasis as well as a stimulating academic resource, as each of us has a study outfitted with a library and equipment.

The Context

A discussion of the politics of academe for us as a married couple must begin with a brief description of our particular job situation. We work in a large, research-oriented institution. Ours is the largest college of education in the country, with hundreds of professors spread across several buildings. Our department, the Department of Educational Leadership, is also one of the largest of its kind in the country. It is comprised of field, service-oriented professors and those of us who tend to be more theory and research oriented. Indeed, conflicting positions on academic standards distinguish these groups and lead to some fairly typical political splits, conflicts, and resentments.

Our own work within this setting, albeit disturbed at times by political struggles, is unceasing and diligent. During our professional training we were both socialized to high standards in research and teaching. Thus, and at the risk of sounding immodest, we are well published, award winning, and nationally recognized researchers and teachers. Clearly, we have set high standards for ourselves, and, in return, appear to be highly respected in the university's research and scholarly community.

We also take truth seeking and truth speaking - core values of our profession - most seriously. During our long careers, we have taken what we believe to be principled stands on important departmental and college issues. Occasionally, a complacent adversary who prefers to preserve the status quo and who is comfortable with what we view as programmatic mediocrity refers to us to as "prima donnas."

Although we are happily married and successful at work, there is a rub... the political milieu that derives from being a couple in academe, which, in turn, is exacerbated by gender issues, ideological differences, and conflicting academic standards among department members. Naturally, all of this accounts for the highly political environment in which we work and it is the interaction of these factors that provokes destructive and even explosive interactions for us, as well as others, in our department.

Married Colleagues and Departmental Politics

We are now long married and work almost exclusively from our home, as mentioned earlier, to better serve our students' and our own needs. In the early years of our marriage we lived out of town on an idyllic, wooded, 100-acre wilderness. Our home was comfortable and peaceful, with two fireplaces and the call of owls at night. It was ideal for serious study and research. As virtual partners, we spent nearly 24 hours of most days together (the exception being our separate class times). Isolated and immersed in our work, we developed a deep, unique bond of trust and understanding and a productive alliance, a bond perhaps not suited to all academic couples but one that works for us to this day.

It has not always been such a blissful existence. We spent many months prior to our marriage struggling with the politics created by divorce, dating, and interacting as colleagues and lovers. The problem -- predictably but nonetheless, sadly -- resulted from some of our colleagues' personal dispositions about such matters (anger, threat, sexism, distrust?).

We both left former relationships with fine people; thus, we appeared to some departmental colleagues to each be a *bad guy, the dumper*, or worse. Several were shocked at the disruption of Jo's long-term marriage and one even took sides, regularly reporting about us to a former partner. Some saw pending disaster in our relationship; about Joe, a never-married single person, one colleague later admitted, "I told the others that I'd give your relationship about a year before it collapsed." As ludicrous as it may sound, resentment, snide and negative comments, and smart-aleck jokes by a few were, at times, the order of the day. Support and encouragement for our pending marriage came not from our colleagues in the department (the best of their remarks was a polite, "Oh, that's a lovely ring," as well as an incredulous, repeated "What!? You set a date? Reaaaaallly?! I don't believe it."), but from the secretaries (the only females in the department aside from Jo) and other colleagues in the college. Naturally, such commentary was dysfunctional and even affected unrelated academic interactions.

As a result of our personal relationship, we have been considered by a few as an illegitimate coalition in departmental politics, even though other professors often share our thinking. Unfortunately, many such like-minded colleagues are untenured, and they have learned that expressing their views on departmental matters can result in vindictive measures being taken against them simply because they have agreed with us, the *illegitimate block*. Indeed, these young professors have witnessed such acts perpetrated against other junior professors by a few senior professors. Thus, untenured professors in this setting have chosen silence as a political strategy to protect themselves. They fear supporting us openly in departmental discussions and debates, and this has made it easier for political adversaries to discount or ignore our contributions.

In addition, some professors seem threatened by our firm commitment to the truth and our rigorous programmatic standards, so much so, in fact, that at times they seem to react in irrational ways. We expect this phenomenon is enhanced simply by the fact that we share the same opinions; again, this may, to others, smack of an unfair coalition. For example, although one of us was clearly in the vanguard of critiquing a new doctoral program which many others also opposed -- it being "shoved down our throats," as one colleague put it, by an administrator -- *both* of us were targets of systematic mistreatment by the administrator. When our repeated attempts at face-to-face resolution were met with rejection and derision by that person, we were forced to take our complaints to the administrator who had appointed him. Yet, this merely added insult to injury, as our concerns were ignored and we were threatened with dismissal, with no reason given. Incredulous, we initiated and won a grievance against the administrator for inappropriate conduct and violation of our academic freedom, but not without a price: this consumed hundreds of hours of our time.

There's No Escaping Gender

The politics of being married are, in turn, related to the politics of gender, especially in terms of how Jo is treated. For over 20 years (and as recently as the 1990s) our department, which serves a student population of over 75% females, had the lowest ratio of female to male professors (ranging from one in ten to one in 16) in the college. The 16 professors were essentially white, middle-aged, very conservative males. (The department in the college that had the second lowest ratio of female to male professors had *twice* that rate of female professors). Of course, the situation was ripe for sexism. During several department meetings, Jo presented her male colleagues with comparative gender data from regional and national exemplary educational leadership programs. These data showed that our department had the lowest ratio of females to male professors in the United States. Furthermore, Jo explained that our students had been vocal about the problem and had complained to her about being deprived of female and minority models in the professorship. There was not a word of response from department members. As Jo expected, despite cogent arguments and overwhelming data, her concerns about the program collided with a wall of silent collusion against changes in the ratio. Over the years, both of us continued to raise the gender issue during department meetings and in writing with college administrators without response. Privately, a couple of colleagues admitted they shared our concern but were afraid to speak out. We repeatedly called for vigorous attempts to recruit high quality female and minority candidates, and it was only after years and due to Jo's diligent and unique efforts (putting data in mailboxes, presenting information about promising females coming into the field, lobbying women to consider joining the department) that another female was hired.

Clearly, we sensed that *good ol' boy* sexism -- perhaps inadvertent sexism -- directed against Jo and in opposition to hiring females and minority faculty was responsible for the recalcitrance exhibited. In addition, Jo is a strong and confident person, with over a decade of successful experience in challenging public school leadership positions, two-fold the public school leadership experience of all of the professors in the department at that time combined. She also has had a productive academic career, including being one of the college's most highly rated instructors. Despite such accomplishments and contrary to Jo's experiences on other all-male administrative teams, Jo was frequently treated dismissively at department meetings. In fact, on numerous occasions, some male professors even took credit for her remarks. At one point, we were told that Jo's application for promotion was unfairly tainted with the professors' insulting suspicion of her being on Joe's coattails when, in fact, our joint work has always been an even split of intellectual work and academic effort. Interestingly, others in our group of married colleagues noted similar experiences of others assuming that one of the couple was piggybacking on the other's work, a phenomenon they seldom witnessed regarding co-authors who were not married.

Sexism in casual professional interactions also resulted in similar outcomes. On one occasion, Jo stood with three male colleagues who were being introduced by a fourth to a male guest, but was overlooked during introductions. She had to interrupt their ensuing conversation to introduce herself. On another occasion, a high-spirited, high-five, congratulatory atmosphere prevailed in a department meeting when it was announced that a male professor had received a college award, but, realizing that Jo's equally significant and important college award for scholarship and teaching excellence would not be announced, Joe mentioned her award. The group remained silent with the exception of one new female professor who whispered congratulations, and who later admitted doing so reservedly so as to avoid being seen by others as aligning herself with us, the illegitimate block. Ironically, it was Jo who had nominated the male professor for his award and it was Jo who prepared all of the supporting documentation.

Jo, in particular, suffered the ridicule of verbal attacks from two professors at departmental meetings and in the hallways of the College. Another female professor appealed to EEOC officers after being publicly verbally abused by one of the same male professors. In fact, with contentious meetings becoming the norm, three professors drafted and proposed the adoption of various professional codes of ethics for faculty members, particularly with respect to conduct in meetings. One professor suggested, "No faculty member should treat another faculty member in an unprofessional and abusive manner." Another, who had requested help from college administrators to deal with dysfunctional interpersonal conflict in the department, wrote, "Nothing was done about these sincere efforts [i.e., the proposed codes of ethics] to develop our faculty group."

Beyond this, female students were also routinely mistreated by one of the same professors. When they sought protection and understanding from other male professors about such abusive conduct, they were dismissed with sexist remarks such as, "Don't worry about it," "Protect yourself by doing nothing about it," and "Aren't you overreacting?" Recently, more than a dozen students complained to Jo about some male professors' "woman-hating," "demeaning," "abusive," "misogynist," and "disrespectful" behavior towards them. Others complained several times about off-color remarks from male professors in classes. Needless to say, Jo's advocacy role on behalf of these students further complicated political matters for her. Her appeals to college administrators (all of whom were male) to correct the situation and to provide faculty development with respect to sexism and other forms of abusive conduct were ignored for almost a decade even though this same issue had been emphatically cited as needing attention by a university-level review of the department.

Programmatic Matters

We believe that graduate programs in educational leadership should be among the strongest in the college of education; for they are the degrees required for school leadership, and leadership is one of the most important factors influencing the quality of teaching and learning in schools. From department records, students, and professors, we gathered and analyzed extensive data about our programs and summarized our findings in writing with the hope of stimulating discussion to address problematic structural and substantive issues. We asked faculty members to commit to participating in planned, collaborative work sessions even though we knew that inertia, cynicism, fear, and complacency would probably prevent the group from moving ahead on these important matters. The group denied the existence of any critical problems plaguing the department and to this day (over a year later) has failed to address even one of the issues we identified, which included grade inflation, excessive numbers of off-campus sites, overloaded classes, weak internships and practica, superficial oral examinations, diminishment of important programs, and concentration of power in the chairperson.

In another matter, both of us, who are among the few professors in the department to hold Ph.D.s in educational administration, were blocked from serving on the committee drafting the new Ph.D. program for the department. Instead, the committee was comprised of individuals who did not have the academic backgrounds relevant to the planning and preparation of a doctoral program. The chair of the committee was the department head's business partner and personal friend. Both verbally and in writing, we challenged the department head's unilateral decision to appoint the chair, and, although several colleagues in the department privately agreed with us that his actions were both arbitrary and irresponsible, they were afraid to openly stand with us.

Conclusion

Being married while working together in the context of academia and, rather uniquely as colleagues in the same department, having had to enter the relationship while being scrutinized by colleagues and after leaving former partners, Jo's gender in a department of men, our strong programmatic stance, and the exigencies of a department comprised of a mix of scholars and practice-oriented professors have inevitably and profoundly affected both our professional and our personal lives. Often we have taken the programmatic and interpersonal issues home and even with us on vacation, trying to find ways to effectively participate in discussion and debate about academic issues while challenging combative, sexist, rude, and other abusive forms of treatment. We have weathered professional alienation from a significant minority of senior faculty. As one would expect, continuous struggles, related frustrations, and several long years of tilting at windmills have, at times, adversely affected our research productivity and preparation for teaching. In recent years, we have resorted to a degree of detachment and disengagement not unlike that which we had challenged in others.

Should we have known better or even anticipated the political problems for married colleagues in such a politically charged milieu? As scholars of leadership, organizational politics, organizational development, and discourse, we did, in fact, predict many of these problems. We suspected that the politics of being a married couple in the same department coupled with sexism could marginalize both of us and contribute to the hostile environment in which we work. We anticipated that few colleagues or administrators could undo programmatic complacency or hostile behavior and dysfunctional conduct. We expected that, to some extent, our marriage would have "political" implications outside the department.

But we did not predict the degree, intensity, and, quite frankly, the viciousness of the politics that would emerge. We naïvely expected that perseverance and data-driven arguments would win out in the end and that equal treatment and productive disagreements would, to some degree, become the norm. Sadly, we have learned otherwise, at least when bias and sexism and distrust won out.

We have also learned that while the university purports to advocate high academic standards, rigorous scholarship, academic freedom, and mutual respect, it nevertheless can breed, tolerate, and collude with corrosive and dysfunctional political cultures that force junior professors who otherwise share high ethical views to sit in silence in faculty meetings and even ingratiate themselves to adversaries for whom they have little respect.

Still, although our anger and frustration have been substantial, we find that we are stronger and even more committed to ethical conduct and high academic standards. We treasure our successful and productive professional collaboration, and we bask in our few (but not insignificant) political successes: We alone challenged incompetent and self-serving department members and administrators, one of whom was ultimately dismissed; we caused a weak doctoral program plan to be redesigned; we forced a belligerent and dysfunctional professor to make a public apology for offensive comments; and we won a grievance against a biased administrator who violated university policy as well as our civil rights.

To this day, we put principle over playing it safe. As we write this, we are in the process of critiquing another weak proposal, one coincidentally designed by a few of our political adversaries. Our political allies have wished us well in this endeavor but we may again have to stand alone (together) and we may again feel that haunting feeling that being married in academe is, at least for us, a *strange brew* indeed!

Chapter 22

Sexism, Safety, and Sports

Linda Medearis

This story illustrates very clearly that the good ol' boy mentality remains rampant in many school districts and that sexism and the supremacy of sports can be involved when the suggestions of a female administrator are not taken seriously.

The question explored by this story is, "Is it preferable to openly acknowledge sexism in educational administration and work to change it or is it better to avoid or deny sexism and discrimination?" I would respond to this question with a resounding endorsement for acknowledgement and efforts to change sexism in educational administration. I frequently use this true story when discussing the subject. I believe it best illustrates some of the problems many female school administrators face.

Several years ago, I was the only female administrator in a small, rural school district. Naturally, I was the elementary principal. I was also the only school district employee with a Ph.D. degree. Members of the community always addressed me as Mrs., never Dr. When I assumed the principal position, the elementary teachers were exclusively female, except for a music teacher. The district paid teachers the state-required minimum salary and nothing more.

This district had one elementary school, one middle school, and one high school, which was famous for its outstanding football teams. The district frequently won state football championships in their class. School was often dismissed early on Fridays during football season so that all could attend out of town games.

The new elementary school was just west of the older high school with a gravel road connecting the two. This road was to be used by school buses only. The elementary school playground was located to the east of the high school and adjoining this gravel road. On several occasions, elementary school teachers came rushing breathlessly into my office to report near accidents as elementary children chasing balls were almost run over by high school students speeding down the gravel road. I would call the high school principal and he would assure me that the high school students would be "taken care of." Yet the problem persisted. Although cautioned repeatedly to not chase balls into or across the gravel road, and despite close supervision by teachers on duty, the young children continued their chases. All the while, high school students kept speeding down the road and it seemed only a matter of time before a tragedy occurred.

One of the first-grade teachers suggested putting up a chain link fence along the gravel road. This could serve two purposes: (1) it might keep balls from getting out of the playground, and (2) it would deter children from darting across the road after a ball. I got estimates for installing the fence -- about $400. I prepared a proposal and went to the next school board meeting prepared to present it. When the school board members heard the dilemma and the proposed fence solution, their response was, "There, there, little lady. We appreciate your concern for the children. However, we do not have money in our budget for your project this year. Please present this again when we are preparing our budget for next year." This was very frustrating, but I understood that the district was not a wealthy one and needed careful budgetary planning.

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The next person to appear before the school board was the high school's head football coach. He explained that the coaches use videos to scout future opponents and to review previously played games for areas needing improvement. He further reported that the old equipment they used for these purposes was not producing very high quality pictures, so the coach proposed that the district purchase new, high quality video equipment at a cost of $5,000. Board members immediately endorsed his proposal and quickly voted to purchase the new equipment.

I was shocked. Could this board possibly put the less than necessary request of the football program before the safety of the district's young children (and future football players)? The next day I began to search in earnest for new employment. Since I possessed a terminal degree and had many years of classroom and administrative experience, I soon secured a tenure-track position at a university in another state.

This story illustrates very clearly that the *good ol' boy* mentality remains rampant in many school districts and that sexism and the supremacy of sports can be involved when the suggestions of a female administrator are not taken seriously. More importantly, however, it illustrates the absolute necessity of confronting these issues head on. To ignore them can literally endanger children. At the least, it denigrates the budgeting process. Considering the teacher shortage we are now experiencing, it would seem that this kind of behavior on the part of an elected school board sends a clear message that athletics are vastly more important than children's safety and priorities for spending are, therefore, quite skewed. If I were one of those female elementary teachers who often fear for my students' safety and a reasonable plan such as this received such a lack of consideration, I am sure I would think twice about staying at that school or perhaps any other.

There is an old saying, "hindsight is better than foresight," which I find to be true. There is a part of me that wishes I had stayed with the job and worked harder at making a difference. While I love my current profession, I feel that I left the former position incomplete. In the ensuing years, I have learned the value of tenacity and persistence. If I had stayed, I might have been able to affect a real difference. Why did I not elect to do just that? Perhaps because I had no peers, no colleagues with whom to share and from whom to secure counsel. I was the only female administrator in the district and most of the nearby small districts had only male administrators. In addition, the local administrative professional organization was almost entirely male.

Today's female administrators are in a better position to support each other and to bond in the same way as males who have the good ol' boy system. Professional organizations such as the Texas Council for Women School Executives offer additional opportunities to gain the support necessary to challenge these types of discriminatory practices. I recognize that this is not purely a female issue, but it certainly bears our attention. We can no longer afford to look the other way when these archaic kinds of decisions affect so many lives.

Chapter 23

Few Female Superintendents... A Self-Fulfilling Prophecy?

Vickie Kivell Phelps

It appears to me that female educators sometimes are reluctant to enter the pool of superintendent candidates. Why? Many women educators simply believe that the emotional and practical costs are too high to consider applying for superintendent vacancies.

As I read the TCWSE 2002 call for articles, I decided to respond with a few personal thoughts as a female superintendent. These comments are not research based; rather, they are offered as personal reflections. My goal is for these comments to cause you, the reader, to pause for a moment and think about your perspective -- it may be very different from mine.

By way of background, I am a 27-year veteran educator. I began teaching third grade in 1975, became an elementary assistant principal in1987, and became an elementary principal in 1989. Since 1992, I've been superintendent in three districts in two states. In each of these districts, I have been the first and, so far, the only female superintendent. And in all three cases, I was hired from outside the district.

The call for this monograph raised the important question first posed in Skrla and Benestante's contribution to the 1998 TCWSE Monograph: "Is it preferable to openly acknowledge sexism in educational administration's existence and work to change it or is it better to avoid or deny sexism and discrimination...?"

In the United States, only about 14% of the school superintendents are female, according to the American Association of School Administrators. From my perspective, two factors greatly influence women and help to explain why just over 1 of 10 superintendents is female:

1. Boards of trustees are reluctant to hire a female as superintendent, and
2. Women are reluctant to enter the pool of superintendent candidates.

I have never experienced open sexism from my superintendent peers. On the other hand, I know that sexism has prevented some boards of trustees from even interviewing me for their superintendent position. When they see a woman's name on a résumé, they put that résumé aside.

Some board members simply will not consider a female superintendent. "Our community won't accept a female superintendent," is what I've heard them say. So, a self-fulfilling prophecy is established: Females aren't interviewed (or, if they are, they are not viewed as serious candidates), aren't hired, and, thus, never have an opportunity to show that a woman can be a superintendent in that community.

In 1995, the board of trustees hired me as the superintendent of Laurens County School District #56 in South Carolina. One evening, soon after my arrival in the district, I had the pleasure of visiting with several life-long residents of the community. One gentleman started telling me some of the history of the district. He finally looked me in the eyes and said, "I've known the last three superintendents over the last 40 years. Each of the superintendents has been over 6' 2" tall and weighed over 250 pounds. I'm not sure

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you are big enough to do the job."

What do you say? After a moment, I smiled and said, "I can promise you two things... I will never be 6'2" and weigh 250 pounds... and I am plenty big enough to do the job!"

Regrettably, some boards seem to believe that size and gender affect a superintendent's ability to do the job. This externally limits opportunities for females to become superintendents.

On the other hand, it appears to me that female educators sometimes are reluctant to enter the pool of superintendent candidates. Why? Many women educators simply believe that the emotional and practical costs are too high to consider applying for superintendent vacancies.

The superintendent works largely at the pleasure of the local board. Despite having a contract that provides some protection, if a majority of the board decides they want a new superintendent, then the current superintendent will usually try to make a graceful exit. In reality, almost every other employee has greater job security than the superintendent.

Seeking a new job and moving to a new community -- as any superintendent must be prepared to do at any time -- can be emotionally and financially costly. Unlike most college presidents, who often live in homes owned by the college, superintendents must sell a home and then buy a home in the new district. The superintendent leaves friends behind, not to mention leaving an organization in which the superintendent has invested time, energy, and heart.

Many times, a superintendent's salary is only marginally higher than the salary of a principal or assistant superintendent. After weighing the potential benefits, many female principals and assistant superintendents are unwilling to step into the superintendent's position.

In a perfect world, gender would be irrelevant to the selection and success of a superintendent. In a perfect world, the number of opportunities for prospective female superintendents would equal the opportunities available to prospective male superintendents.

From my perspective, some boards of trustees limit the success of female superintendents by arbitrarily focusing on gender in the selection process. In addition, some female administrators also limit the pool of available superintendents by being unwilling to assume the risks of being a superintendent.

It seems to me that that National School Boards Association and the American Association of School Administrators could work more closely together to address both aspects of this situation. These two associations -- and, just as important, their state affiliates -- could work together to identify strategies that will increase opportunities for female superintendent candidates and to lessen the risks associated with the job for all superintendents.

Recruiting and Mentoring Prospective Women Leaders

Women as School Executives: Research and Reflections on Educational Leadership

Chapter 24

A Perspective on Mentoring Female Professors in Educational Administration Programs

Trudy A. Salsberry

If successful women faculty are not part of the preparation process for future school leaders, it is doubtful there will be continued improvement in the number and success of female educators aspiring to all positions of leadership in the schools.

A recent publication, *Women Leaders. Structuring Success* (Irby & Brown, 1998), captured a range of issues surrounding females in school leadership positions. The book provided a historical account of the career paths and challenges women once experienced and then described the nature and characteristics of today's female leaders. As I read the book, I was delighted to hear the voices of my peers and celebrated the progress that has been made in forming a more inclusive view of educational leadership. I was also concerned that I now hold a position that is not often addressed in the professional literature, the role of female professor in an educational administration preparation program.

Why Should We be Concerned about Women Educational Administration Professors?

Female professors in educational administration programs play a critical role in efforts to establish gender equity in our public schools as well as colleges and universities. Schmuck (1998) noted the importance of universities and colleges taking responsibility for supporting women as they pass through all stages of their career. She admonished readers to carefully investigate university programs' recognition and support of women in a number of dimensions, including concepts of leadership, gender equity in the curriculum, and ontological and epistemological philosophical bases. Most importantly, she pointed out the need to ask about the faculty and the presence of women in those positions.

Schmuck argued that university departments housing educational administration training are similar to school districts in needing to seek more diversity in administrative positions. Just as preK-12 schools report a shortage of qualified educators seeking administrative positions, there is also a shortage of doctoral candidates entering professorial positions. Furthermore, only 17% of school superintendents are women (Montenegro, 1993) and only 15% of female faculty are full professors, compared to 39% of male faculty at the rank of full professor (NCES, 2000).

Even when women acquire positions in higher education, they face policies and practices that inhibit their advancement and/or place less value on their achievements when compared to their male colleagues. A study by Riger, Stockes, Raja, and Sullivan (1997) concluded that women faculty may be assigned heavier teaching loads than their male counterparts and may have more difficulty getting appointed to influential committees. Furthermore, there may be inequities in the distribution of resources for conducting research or the research conducted by women may be less valued. In most

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universities, the traditional measures of success most heavily emphasize published research. Good teaching and service to the educational community are typically considered important, but no one is promoted without a solid research background. Finally, Brown (1999) discussed the issue of women's success within higher educational institutions and declared the need for better gender balance at the top of the administrative hierarchy to increase the chance for change in the climate of decision making to reflect the value of multiple perspectives and approaches.

Women of color face an additional set of complications compounding the effects of being both female and minority (Hammons-Bryner, 1995). Studies of motivational factors in academe have universalized the experiences of white men treating women and minorities as anomalies. In her ethnographic study of African American women, Hammons-Bryner found that the women expressed a lack of positive signals about being a professor from teachers and friends and that they had difficulty finding role models.

Finally, there is a possibility women in leadership are often required to abandon the values and relationships that are so frequently associated with women in our society; values such as nurturing, reciprocity, intimacy, mutuality, care and concern for others, and collaboration. Freedman (1979) observed that the success of the first generation of female academics did not survive past the 1920s not only because men resisted, but also because women's success isolated them from other women -- the very support systems they needed and could not replace.

While much may have changed since Freedman's 1979 publication, leadership texts continue to highlight the differences in male and female leaders, noting that women use more democratic styles of leadership (Eagly & Johnson, 1990), women leaders prefer a more cooperative style of leadership (Helgesen, 1990), and women are evaluated more negatively by men when they behave in stereotypically masculine ways (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992), thus limiting the range of behaviors appropriate for women.

What Should Institutions of Higher Education Do to Support Women Educational Administration Faculty?

Universities must provide support to those women electing to work at institutions of higher education. If successful women faculty are not part of the preparation process for future school leaders, it is doubtful there will be continued improvement in the number and success of female educators aspiring to all positions of leadership in the schools. Furthermore, the involvement of women in school leadership has the potential to impact entire school systems by establishing role models and combating flawed perceptions and biases.

A study of 12 women in higher education administration yielded six suggestions for improving the lives of women in academic positions (Willinger, Brannon, Goodwin, Halpern, Johnson, Kelly, et al, 2000). First was the need for women administrators to mentor other women. The women in the study frequently discussed a mentor, a major professor, or some other influential academician instrumental in their success. Second, universities should sponsor inter- and intra-university groups for women faculty, staff, and administrators. Third, administrative positions for those in nontraditional career tracks should be made more available to women. The authors discussed the example of an executive assistant to the president of a university who did not come through the traditional academic path, but who was serving as the governor's press secretary when she accepted her higher education administrative position. Fourth, women need to develop and be comfortable with their own personal style of leadership. This should include the commitment to improve the general status of women on campus. Fifth, universities should establish task forces to monitor the status of their women staff, faculty, and administrators. Finally, full disclosure of institutional reports and data related to the status of women should be the norm.

What Can We Learn from One University that has Implemented a Program to Mentor Women Educational Administration Faculty?

An examination of one program -- the College of Education at Kansas State University (KSU) -- can serve as an illustration of the need and a possible strategy for addressing the underrepresentation of women on the faculty who train future public school leaders. First, the number of female full professors in the KSU College of Education (COE) is only a small portion of the total number at that rank (approximately 19%), which is common across the country. Second, of the six full-time faculty in the Educational Administration and Leadership Department (EDADL), no female has ever held full professor rank and there has never been more than one woman in the department at any rank at any given time. While many reasons may be offered to explain the lack of diversity at all levels -- low turnover, lack of qualified female candidates, and poor training to assume and retain the professorate positions -- the need to attract and retain professors of all backgrounds is critical given the predicted shortage of and increase in competition for underrepresented groups, including women.

In an effort to address the lack of faculty diversity, the COE established in the 1999-2000 school year a formal mentoring program to assist in the retention and success of new faculty. An advisory board was established to develop the format of the program and the resulting activities, which included a range of formal and informal events such as workshops, luncheons, and guest speakers. All professors new to the COE, whether new to the professorate or not, are provided at least one mentor who is either an associate or full professor with several years of experience at KSU. An attempt is made to provide two mentors, each one with a different perspective or area of expertise. For example, one mentor is from the new professor's field of research or department and the second is outside the department and typically has expertise in college and university politics. The mentors and mentees meet monthly as a large group and one-on-one activities suggested by the advisory committee (such as reviewing manuscripts or discussing ethical procedures) are conducted throughout the year between the mentors and mentee. This mentoring program is still in place and the advisory committee continues in its evaluation and developmental roles.

Annual surveys of the mentoring program revealed that both mentors and mentees found the experience to be very positive. Comments from participants included:

- "I remain committed to this support process. It has helped professionally and personally. Please continue it."
- "It is rejuvenating and a comfort to a new assistant professor that so many people are willing to come together and share their expertise and experience."

Based on these two years of experience, a number of lessons have been learned about effective mentoring for new professors and offer good advice for other universities considering such a program.

Lesson One

The structure of the program must be flexible. Participants want to be involved in choosing who their mentors will be or if they even want to participate in a mentoring program. Equally important is the ability of mentors and mentees to select the topics and activities that will be most beneficial to their relationships. A balance between established agendas and freedom to discuss timely issues is required.

Lesson Two

There are some common topics which need to be addressed, including grant writing, writing for publication, understanding the politics and culture of the college and university, understanding the role of the professor (teaching, research, and service), understanding the expectations for tenure and promotion, and designing and conducting specific types of research. While these were the topics emerging specifically from annual surveys, the advisory committee will consider other issues related to success in the professorate, including how to teach effectively in the university setting, course content and expectations, preparing syllabi, and instructional methods for adult versus public school student learners.

Lesson Three

The mentoring program fulfills a wide range of needs. In addition to the traditional academic concerns connected to teaching, research, and service, mentees remarked on the benefits of being able to talk with their mentors as well as fellow mentees about emerging personal issues. Just having someone stop by and ask, "How's it going?" was viewed as very helpful. One mentee commented that one of the most helpful things was "my quiet Monday coffees" with my mentor and knowing "I could have several people to ask advice of when needed." Even the mentors discussed such benefits as (1) becoming better acquainted with new faculty and, thus, establishing more effective working relationships across the college; (2) thinking more about the role of senior faculty and their responsibilities to other faculty, the university, the state, and the larger educational community; (3) recognizing the modeling aspect of being a mentor; and (4) learning more about research from their colleagues. The mentoring luncheons provided a "safe place to talk, share strategies, and get away from day-to-day obligations."

Lesson Four

There is never enough time to meet and explore relevant and/or pressing issues. While this is a common complaint for most educators, placing a scheduled meeting time on the COE calendar and varying the assigned day and time helps new professors integrate this into their schedules. This type of scheduling is very important, especially when beginning the mentoring process because a sanctioned college event is much easier to protect than a recommended informal visit.

Lesson Five

Provisions must be made for individual advice and feedback from a non-threatening source. Mentees noted concerns that their evaluations and load allocations could not be comfortably discussed within their department or with a mentee from their department. Others noted problems with gender-biased comments concerning competence in their teaching, research, or service roles. Many issues are specific to the individual and require the expertise of senior faculty aware of the politics of the college.

Lesson Six

All levels of faculty should participate in mentoring programs. While the focus at KSU has primarily been to assist new assistant professors, associate professors have noted the desire to be mentored as they seek promotion to full professor. Ideally, mentoring would even include full professors who want an opportunity to dialog about professional development and renewal.

What Do I Want Other Women in Education to Know about Being a Professor in an Educational Administration Program?

As the only full-time female professor in a department that trains future administrators, I want other women to know that the university offers yet another choice in your career path. This role allows you to influence the thinking of future school leaders and provides opportunities for you to have a strong voice in not only raising gender equity issues, but also in influencing how future leaders will approach these issues in the preK-12 schools. Professors of educational administration are in a powerful position to increase awareness of discrimination, establish more inclusive views of leadership, and establish strategies to address inequities. Women who choose to serve in this capacity can be role models to other women who may not otherwise consider the professorate as a career choice. Finally, you can use your leadership skills to develop connections with all types of educators who can encourage the professional growth of women!

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Chapter 25

Using Current and Former School Administrators to Enrich Administrator Preparation Programs

Travis W. Twiford

If the universities want their faculties to include more underrepresented groups like females and minorities, they must look at alternative staffing methods that will increase the opportunities for these groups to be involved in graduate instruction.

For many years change in education seemed to be more evolutionary than dynamic. While change in the business world occurred at an ever increasing pace, education seemed to be caught in a time warp. Following the release of *A Nation at Risk* in the early 1980s it seemed that change began to take on a new sense of urgency and the pace began to quicken. As educators and policymakers began to look at ways to improve education, change became the vehicle through which they sought improvement. The rapidly accelerating rate of change came home to me several years ago as I was talking about educational issues with a well-respected colleague who had recently retired as superintendent of the Charlotte-Mecklenburg County School District in North Carolina. We were discussing current issues in the profession, when he stopped me to say, "I have only been retired for six months and I feel I am already out of touch with what is taking place in the schools." If this person, who had been active in the profession for over thirty years and had served as a superintendent for over twenty years feels that he could lose touch in just six short months, how do we keep the content of our graduate courses in educational leadership current? If the work in the schools is changing so quickly, how are we going to keep the people delivering instruction to future administrators well informed so they can train their students to become effective leaders?

Many professors in graduate programs have never been public school administrators, while others served as successful school administrators before many of the current issues became so prominent. Although both groups make genuine efforts to stay up-to-date with what is occurring in the public schools through readings, site visits and interactions with graduate students, it is very difficult for them to understand the full impact of many current issues. Having never dealt with these challenging issues first hand, many of these professors find it difficult to fully appreciate the struggles facing current administrators. Having never developed specific strategies to deal with these complex challenges, some professors often find it difficult to guide the current students through the many options they have to consider as they address these issues. All graduate programs in educational administrator training want their graduates to be prepared for their new responsibilities and want them to have a thorough understanding of the issues they will face. The key challenge confronting educational administration programs is ensuring appropriate and relevant preparation during this time of rapid change in public education.

Although I would never argue against the value of tenure track professors who bring many wonderful experiences and great knowledge to their program area, I would suggest that universities that rely solely on these individuals run the risk of having a program that no longer prepares future leaders well. If universities want to graduate students from their

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administrator preparation programs prepared to face the challenges of a rapidly changing profession, they must develop ways to keep the program's content and faculty current. If the universities want their faculties to include more underrepresented groups like females and minorities, they must look at alternative staffing methods that will increase the opportunities for these groups to be involved in graduate instruction. Also, if universities want to take the lead in showcasing the capabilities, contributions, and successes of underrepresented groups, thus encouraging others to become school leaders, they must provide opportunities for individuals in these groups to share their knowledge with future leaders.

Most graduate programs in educational administration divide their programming into three distinct areas: foundation, applied, and research courses. The foundation courses are the core curriculum courses that serve as the knowledge base of public school administration. The historical significance of these courses helps future administrators establish an information base that will serve as the springboard for acquiring new knowledge and understanding. Courses addressing leadership, administrative theory, law, finance and governance clearly establish the framework for future success or failure. Current and former school administrators, depending on their experiences and personal knowledge, may be effective in teaching these courses.

Applied coursework -- where the knowledge base acquired in the foundation courses is applied to real school administration situations -- is the area in which universities can make major strides in making classes more relevant. Courses involving specific issues such as personnel administration, facility planning, community relations, governance and policy contain subject matter where the diversification of university faculty may be valuable. As with foundation courses, universities may wish to consider alternative staffing approaches, including the employment of current or recently retired school administrators to teach these classes as part-time or adjunct faculty. Although an over dependence on these people may lead to a fragmented program of study, a mix of these people along with the regular tenure track faculty members could enrich the administrator preparation program offerings and make the programming much more meaningful to the students.

Research courses are critical because they teach graduate students how to find and use the professional literature needed for informed practice as well as to maintain currency in the profession. Professors skilled in quantitative and qualitative research methods are needed to instruct students about the traditional methods of research, to assist them in becoming competent in accessing the vast amount of data that is now available electronically, and to help them learn to discern which information is valid, reliable, and applicable to their job performance. Current and former practitioners may not be well suited for this role.

In order to train people to be effective leaders in the future, the universities must have people teaching classes who are familiar with the current issues facing administrators daily. Some of the issues that have surfaced as major concerns during the past few years include:

- High-stakes testing and accountability
- Student and teacher stress related to high stakes testing
- Closing student achievement gaps
- Using technology to enhance instruction and improve administrative efficiency
- Student discipline and school safety
- More intense public oversight
- Public and media relations
- Increasing parental involvement
- Diversity issues, including bilingual education and inclusion of special education

students
- Public demand for enriched curriculum offerings in a time of tight budgets
- Teacher and administrator shortages
- Teacher and administrator quality
- Pressure to reduce the size of central administration

Although not all-inclusive, this list includes many of the issues, both new and redefined, that face today's administrators.

The potential advantages associated with the use of current or former school administrators are programmatic, financial and social. First, the vast majority of these people have terminal degrees. Second, they have many years of experience in education. Third, they are familiar with the issues facing today's educational leaders. Fourth, they can present information from the perspective of first hand experience and can cite examples of how certain theories are applied in the schools. Fifth, many of the people are willing to work on a part-time basis, thus making their employment very attractive financially. Sixth, they demand very little administrative support, thus enhancing their cost effectiveness. Seventh, it gives the universities the opportunity to employ successful school leaders with experiences in a variety of settings like urban, rural, or suburban. Eighth, it gives the universities the opportunity to employ individuals from under-represented groups like females and minorities who can serve as positive role models for aspiring administrators.

The potential disadvantages associated with hiring currently employed or former school administrators are primarily programmatic. First, an over dependence on part-time or adjunct professors can lead to a fragmentation of the administrator preparation program. Second, current administrators are very busy people and could find it difficult to find the time to properly prepare for and attend classes. Third, retired personnel may be looking for a job to provide a supplementary income versus being committed to providing a quality administrator preparation program. Fourth, classes taught by these individuals may end up being long on *war stories* and short on content. Fifth, the experiences of the individuals may be limited to their own particular situations, thus narrow in content and not applicable to other settings.

In an effort to gather information about the experiences of students in classes taught by current and/or recently retired school administrators, a survey of 40 doctoral students at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University was conducted during the spring semester of 2001. Of the 27 students who responded, all had masters or specialists' degrees and had completed approximately 20 hours of doctoral course work. The students were asked to reflect on their experiences at all levels of their graduate studies and to respond based on their composite experiences rather than individual courses.

The results of the survey were surprisingly positive regarding the use of current and recently retired administrators as faculty members. The key findings are as follows:

- All of the respondents had taken at least one graduate class taught by one of these individuals at some point in their graduate studies.
- Of the former school administrators who taught these courses, there was a mix of professors who were serving as adjunct, part-time or full-time faculty.
- Approximately 60% of the courses taught by these individuals were applied courses and approximately 40% were foundation courses. (Note: A breakdown of the foundation courses showed that former administrators who are now full-time faculty members taught the vast majority of the foundation courses.)
- Some students had taken both applied and foundation courses taught by these individuals.
- All survey respondents gave high ratings to the classes taught by former or current school administrators.

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- All responded that the former administrators had a good theoretical knowledge base and were familiar with current trends and issues related to the topic of the course.
- All responded that the experiences of the former or current school leaders added both interest and relevance to the course.
- Although still high overall, the group did rate the current and former school administrators lower on the quality and timeliness of their feedback on assignments.

Based on the responses from this survey, it appears that there are few downsides to using current or former school administrators as professors in administrator preparation programs. From the student's perspective, the classes that were taught by these individuals tended to be both relevant and interesting. Of the students who responded to the survey, over 92% gave the classes with former or current school administrators a grade of *A*. The remaining 8% gave the classes a grade of *A*-. These classes obviously were effective based on the student ratings. Many of the respondents offered comments like "...this course was the most valuable course in my entire graduate program of study."

Obviously, university department heads need to carefully screen the employment of current or former school administrators as they are considered for full-time, part-time, or adjunct positions. In fact, it is possible that the high ratings of these individuals reflect the results of a very effective screening plan already in place. The evidence from this survey sends a clear message to educational leadership program administrators that the use of current and former school leaders can and does add interest and relevance to graduate programs in administrator preparation. When used appropriately, these practitioners can enrich students' graduate school experiences and help prepare students for success when they complete their graduate studies.

Chapter 26

Gendered Perspectives of Superintendent Preparation Programs

Genevieve Brown
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The research indicates that female superintendents found the programs less relevant than did male superintendents.

Recent research offers evidence that traditional paradigms and cultural biases in the public school and university communities continue to perpetuate barriers encountered by women who seek the superintendency. Keane and Moore (2001) pointed out that school boards are, perhaps, in the best position to remove these barriers and increase the number of female applicants for vacant superintendent positions. Currently, female applicants receive less than half as many interviews for the superintendency as do their male counterparts (Shepard, 1999), indicating that females are not considered viable candidates by school boards. Logan (1999) further supported this notion by noting "an unwillingness of some boards to consider women for leadership and local cultural beliefs and the reluctance to change traditional hiring patterns" (p. 5). Additionally, Logan reported that, in general, universities included in her study (those belonging to the University Council for Educational Administration) are doing little to address the traditional deterrents to hiring women. She stated, "[T]he historically androcentric paradigm is still present in UCEA educational administration programs; little, if anything, is being done to change that reality at the structural and cultural level" (p. 5). Logan suggested, "it is time for educational administration departments to reassess, adjust, and activate gender equity strategies that will bring about an equitable hiring context for all... graduates" (p. 6). Logan (1999) is not the first to challenge the practices of educational administration programs. In fact, during the past decade, politicians, policymakers, business people, professional organizations, practicing superintendents, and university professors, themselves, have pointed out numerous concerns related to superintendency training programs, including the absence of equity issues (Schmuck & Schubert, 1995), the underrepresentation of women in those programs, curriculum that was too theoretical, insufficient information regarding relationships with local school boards (Douglas, 1992), and failure to address the knowledge and skill base needed for the superintendency (American Association of School Administrators, 1993).

A compounding problem is that much of the research related to superintendency preparation programs has been based on white, male samples or has not considered the gender or other background information of their subjects. In fact, it has been only within the last two decades that efforts have been made to specifically include female superintendents in the research (Tallerico, 1999), and little research has been conducted with practicing administrators to ascertain how they view their preparation programs

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(Douglas, 1992; Grogan, 1994; Iselt, 1999; McKay & Grady, 1994).

Weaknesses in Superintendent Preparation Programs

Researchers have found that preparation programs for school superintendents frequently fail to address: (a) superintendent/school board interactions; (b) the vulnerability of the superintendent; (c) the important role of a career plan for women; (d) external and political influences on the superintendency; (e) the influence of the media; (f) school board turnover issues; (g) the intense visibility of the superintendent; (h) emotional demands of the position, (i) information about gender in the curriculum; (j) less than rigorous admission standards; (k) overly theoretical curriculum; and (l) job-related issues and challenges encountered by superintendents (Douglas,1992; Glass, 1992; Grogan,1996; Tallerico, Burstyn, & Poole, 1993; McKay & Grady, 1994; Osborne, 1996).

More recent research has determined that women in their early years of the superintendency indicated the following information would have been beneficial prior to their assuming the superintendency (Pavan, 1999):

- Negotiating contracts
- Dealing with political issues
- Nurturing board members
- Studying past practices and planning based on findings
- Communicating, interfacing with the public, and reacting to criticism
- Modeling desired behavior
- Using humor and role reversal stories to be persuasive
- Expecting differential treatment
- Protecting personal and family time
- Being a superintendent
- Trusting instincts or intuition

These findings have important implications for reforming superintendent preparation program curricula and support criticisms that university preparation programs have failed to connect theory and practice (Björk, 2001; Glass, Björk, & Brunner, 2000; Murphy & Hallinger, 1987).

Björk (2001) concluded that individuals do not easily transfer theories acquired in graduate programs to practice. Superintendents have insisted that course time should be spent on field-based practice rather than on outdated theory lectures (American Association of School Administrators, 1993; Iselt, 1999). Therefore, placing too much emphasis on theory is problematic. Equally troubling, however, is that the theory espoused in these programs comes from the male perspective and has assumed the male experience can be generalized to explain the behaviors of female superintendents (Brown & Irby, 1995; McKay & Grady, 1994; Schmitt, 1995; Shakeshaft, 1989). Brown and Irby (1995) indicated that "the current theories taught in administrative preparation programs are negatively impacting the field because they (a) do not reflect currently advocated leadership practice; (b) do not address the concerns, needs, or realities of women; (c) perpetuate the barriers that women encounter; and (d) do not prepare women or men to create and work effectively in inclusive systems" (p. 42-43).

Gendered Perspectives of Superintendent Preparation Programs

The following results highlight a portion of a larger study (Iselt, 1999) on gendered perspectives regarding superintendents' university preparation programs in Texas. The findings solidly confirm that superintendents perceive that information relevant to their successful job performance was not adequately addressed in their university superintendency preparation programs. In particular, the research indicates that female superintendents found the programs less relevant than did male superintendents (Iselt, Brown, & Irby, 2001).

Specifically, on a Likert format survey with a four-point scale, 124 superintendents (62 female, 62 male) agreed that 21 of 30 leadership knowledge and skills topics were relevant to their job performance, but that those topics were not emphasized sufficiently in their superintendency training program:

- personnel issues
- finance/budget management
- school plant
- decision making
- school board relations
- community relations
- handling the media
- conflict resolution
- technology issues
- gender issues
- ethnicity issues
- time management
- stress management
- use of role models
- use of mentors
- emotional demands of the position
- reflective practice
- résumé development
- career planning
- showcasing qualifications
- confidence building

Although the previously named leadership topics presented in their superintendency programs were found to be relevant for both male and female superintendents, data analysis indicated that female superintendents found 8 topics among the 30 to be more relevant to job performance than did males: legal issues, organizational culture/climate, ethics, working within the cultural/political system, collaboration, networking, use of mentors, and interviewing practice. Furthermore, the female superintendents reported that these eight items were not sufficiently emphasized in their programs.

All 124 superintendents in the study reported only one of the 30 topics - theory -to have less relevancy to the their jobs than the emphasis it was given in their university superintendency preparation programs. Overemphasis of topics not perceived by practicing superintendents to be relevant to their job performance indicates a weakness in university superintendent preparation program curricula, just as does failure to adequately emphasize relevant topics.

Recommendations for Superintendent Preparation Programs

As professors seek to restructure university preparation programs, not only can they address barriers that exist for women seeking the superintendency, but also they can attend to the identified weaknesses in superintendent preparation programs, by:

- Identifying, within their own programs, practices and curricula that promote traditional cultural paradigms and perpetuate inequitable access and stereotypical norms,
- Promoting attitudinal changes toward women as leaders by providing information and educational programs to school boards, school district personnel, and local communities,
- Emphasizing the identified topics in the curriculum from the reported study, with particular attention to the topics female superintendents found to be most relevant, and
- Aligning leadership theory more closely to practice and including female leadership experiences and behaviors in discussions of theory.

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Chapter 27

Landing the Right Superintendency: Making a Good Match

Sandra Lowery
Russell Marshall
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Careful study of the profiles developed by school boards; learning as much as possible about the district and its needs; and honest answers to questions of experiences, professional characteristics, and personal characteristics can enhance the likelihood of making a good match.

Landing the right superintendency involves more than being the most qualified candidate on paper. In fact, finding the right superintendency depends upon a good match between the needs and interests of the school district and the experiences and qualifications of the candidate. The task of making a good match is challenging and critically important for both candidates and school boards. Due to the aging population of practicing superintendents and the current level of superintendent turnover, a significant number of vacancies is quite likely in the near future. This will increase the temptation of candidates to accept a position that is not a good match, which can lead to disaster for the school district, the superintendent, or both. The person who would have been an excellent match for a particular school district just a few years ago may not be the best person for that position today.

Many school boards, with the help of community input, are developing profiles for the superintendents they seek to employ. This process is helping school boards clarify expectations for new superintendents and conduct more successful searches. Because most superintendents are men, with only 13% of these positions nationwide held by women (Glass, Bjork, & Brunner, 2000), it is especially difficult for women to secure these jobs. Many school boards do not consider females to be educational leaders and prefer to select males, citing such concerns as: Can women be disciplinarians? Do they understand budgeting? Would a woman have to be paid the same as a man? (Tallerico, 2000). In fact, gender has been such an issue in acquiring superintendent positions that obvious factors - such as certification, experience, and strong references - have proven to be of minimal benefit to females (Siegal, 1999). Additionally, Pavan (1988) reports that women submit more applications, have more interviews, and search longer than men for these positions.

How can women superintendent candidates use the profiles developed by school boards and superintendent search consultants to improve their chances of making a good match? In general, thoughtful, introspective reflection will benefit the female applicant during the matchmaking process. Women should also pay particular attention to the

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specific profile generated by communities prior to conducting a superintendent search.

What is this Board Looking for?

Am I the superintendent they are seeking? Development of a clear, accurate description of the type of superintendent a particular school district seeks is the responsibility of the local school board. Whether the board conducts the superintendent search itself or utilizes the service of a search consultant, it is the board's responsibility to identify the traits, characteristics, skills, and experiences it is looking for in a new superintendent. Once a profile has been developed, the candidate can then compare herself to that profile.

What Experiences are Important for this Position?

Is this district facing serious financial struggles? Will a background in curriculum and instruction with experience in instructional improvement meet the needs of the district at this time? Does this district need someone with experience in bond issues and facilities construction? Is this district seeking a change agent, someone to lead in a period of reform and restructuring? Perhaps, the district has undergone significant turmoil and needs a peacemaker. Will this board work well with a beginning superintendent or does it need the leadership skills of an experienced, seasoned superintendent? The candidate must assess these and other identifiable district needs in the quest for a good match.

What Professional Characteristics are Most Important for this Position?

In a recent study of superintendent searches that included the development of profiles, Lowery, Marshall, and Harris (in press) identified the following professional characteristics as most often cited by school boards:

- empowering others
- valuing employees
- communicating well
- exhibiting financial acumen
- being approachable
- being dedicated to improving student performance

Which of these characteristics are most important for this particular district at this time? Is this district seeking an outstanding communicator? Are excellent people skills critical for this position?

What Personal Characteristics are Considered Most Important for the New Superintendent of this School District?

The study by Lowery, Marshall, and Harris (in press) also identified the following as the most frequently listed personal characteristics sought in superintendent candidates:

- moral values
- honesty
- integrity

While these personal characteristics were generally agreed upon, the interpretation of exactly what constitutes moral values, honesty, and integrity may vary from one community to another. Do high moral values mean that divorced candidates need not apply? A candidate might well ask, "How do my interpretations of these personal characteristics correlate with the predominant community interpretations? Will my family and I be comfortable in this community?"

Summary

Moving into a new superintendency is a challenging, exciting, and often frightening step that can include life transitions, not only for the superintendent, but also for the superintendent's family. Careful study of the profiles developed by school boards; learning as much as possible about the district and its needs; and honest answers to questions of experiences, professional characteristics, and personal characteristics can enhance the likelihood of making a good match.

Recommendations for Women

In addition to asking the questions outlined in the paragraphs above, women need to focus on their particular strengths. For example, there is evidence in the literature that females are better at curriculum and instructional leadership than males (Shakeshaft, 1999); therefore, women who exhibit this strength should emphasize it and focus on those districts seeking strong instructional leaders. Because women are often stereotyped and seen as not as experienced in discipline or financial issues (Tallerico, 2000), particular attention should be given to these issues on résumés and during interviews.

Lowery and Harris (2000) interviewed women superintendents in Texas about what they liked and disliked about the job and noted that, in general, women try to play down the gender issue when recommending the job to other women. However, when seeking to become a superintendent, perhaps women should do just the opposite by learning what the gender stereotypes are in different communities and by actively seeking to minimize them in the job search. Landing the right superintendency is a challenge, but asking the right questions can help women to make the best match possible.

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Chapter 28

Barriers to Seeking Administrative Positions: We're Closing the Wrong Gender Gap

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If the administrator shortage is to be addressed, knowing reasons why educators -- both men and women - are choosing not to enter the field is important.

"At the very time when public education is in need of strong leadership, many are failing to answer the call..." (Miller, 1998, p. 9). What was once thought to be a remote possibility is quickly becoming a reality. In a 1998 survey conducted by the Educational Research Service, over half of the superintendents surveyed reported a shortage of qualified candidates to fill the administrative vacancies within their districts. The same holds true for superintendency positions. The number of principals having reached retirement age only partly accounts for the shortage; another factor is the decreasing number of educators choosing to go into administration. According to the executive director of the Chester County Intermediate Unit in Pennsylvania, "Fifteen years ago, we'd get 100 to 125 applications for a superintendent's job. Today, if you get 40 you're lucky" (Miller, p. 9). Miller found that these concerns are echoed "not only in the urban Northeast, but in rural areas throughout the country" (p. 9).

The literature on remedies for the shortage focuses on recruiting educators into administration, developing university programs that attract into these positions women and minorities who have traditionally been underrepresented, reducing the stress associated with administrative positions, and making administrative jobs more attractive to educators (Anderson, 1991; Daresh, 1997; ERS, 2000; & Sullivan, 1989). One readily available source is those educators who have already obtained administrative credentials but who, for one reason or another, are not in administrative positions. In this chapter, issues surrounding the administrator shortage are presented followed by a discussion of the research that addresses the reasons educators obtain administrative certification but are not employed as administrators. Special attention is given to the differences between men and women's self-reported reasons for not being in administration.

The Increasing Demand for Administrators

Studies conducted throughout the Unites States indicate there is a shortage of educators applying for administrative positions, especially the principalship and superintendency (ERS, 2000; Miller, 1998; Tingley, 1996). Several factors contribute to this deficit:

- Many principal and assistant principal job openings between now and 2005 will

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likely result from principals and assistant principals retiring. The average age of persons in the principalship has steadily increased since 1987-88 school year. Consequently, the number of administrators eligible for retirement is large (ERS, 1998).

- The number of assistant principals is expected to increase between now and 2005 because many districts are hiring additional administrative staff to meet the demands of increased workloads and expanding student enrollments rather than opening new schools (ERS, 1998).
- An increasing number of educators are choosing not to enter administration (DeFelice, 1999).

Job Attractiveness

Studies that explore the reasons educators do not move into administrative positions show that the following factors influenced their decisions in the 1980s: high pressure, long hours, low salaries, high housing costs, inadequate budgets, lack of job security, and perceived lack of job satisfaction (Sullivan, 1989). More recent research conducted by Tingley (1996) revealed fairly similar factors that help explain why educators choose not to enter administration: salary issues, concerns about job security, difficulty satisfying various interest groups, increasing criticism of school leadership, low budgets, unreliable state aid, union demands, and residency requirements. Principals attending the Principal Leadership Summit in July 2000 listed the "changing demands of the job" as the major reason they believe there is a shortage of candidates. They identified as primary issues of concern accountability over which they had little control, high-stakes standards, lack of adequate support, legal issues, special education issues, lack of time to do the job well, lack of parental and community support, and salaries not commensurate with the job's responsibility (Kennedy, 2001). Miller (1998) found that "Ninety percent of 600 administrators interviewed in a University of Nebraska study said their jobs were more stressful now than five years ago. Thus, veteran superintendents say that school leaders must train for the position as a top athlete would -- or they, too, will be candidates for burnout" (p. 9).

Underutilization of Available Resources

While a need for additional administrators exists and will likely continue, valuable human resources remain underutilized. For example, both women and minorities are underrepresented in administrative positions (Banks, 1995; DeFelice, 1999; Grady, 1992, & Shakeshaft, 1989), and many educators who have declared an interest in administration by gaining obtaining certification are not in administrative positions. Tingley (1996) reflects:

> Clearly, we have not drawn educational leadership thus far from the widest ranks of the best and the brightest, and developing opportunities for all of the teaching force within the public schools seems to be a systematic change that may result in real improvement (p. 48).

Tapping into all of the human resources available to fill these positions and drawing on the strengths of each would add to the candidate pool and aid in filling these vital positions with qualified candidates.

Certified Educators Not Employed in an Administrative Capacity

Making administrative jobs more attractive is one solution to the shortage. "Some boards are paying top dollar to keep strong superintendents and attract the best candidates. Even those leading districts in smaller metropolitan areas now are commanding the $200,000 salaries once reserved for large urban or wealthy suburban areas" (Miller, 1998, p. 9). Increasing salaries is only one method of attracting and keeping school leaders. Districts can also identify and actively recruit teachers with strong leadership potential, attract women and minorities who are often overlooked for such positions, and draw on the pool of educators who are certified to be administrators but who are not in administrative positions.

Several studies have been conducted to investigate why individuals certified as administrators do not seek these positions. In 1977, Krchniak surveyed 242 women holding supervisory or administrative certification in Illinois who were not employed as administrators and found that 61% of the women were not interested in obtaining an administration position. Of the 35 women in the study who were offered administrative positions, 66% refused at least one offer. Krchniak also found that 93% of the women were not willing to relocate due to their husband's work, family obligations, and the low salary schedule. Many of the women also reported that discrimination was a factor.

Krchniak identified six variables to be associated with the low incidence of women in administration in 1977: (1) low aspirations to obtain the position, (2) a lack of assertiveness in obtaining the position, (3) personal and situational constraints, (4) discriminatory hiring practices, (5) lack of help with placement on the part of the university, and (6) women's general attitudes and beliefs.

In 1992, Grady conducted a survey of 196 women in Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota who were certified but did not hold an administrative position and found that 65% had not applied for a position in the previous five years. Grady conducted interviews with 45 of these women and identified the top six reasons for their not applying: (1) they liked their current position, (2) they were not interested in being an administrator, (3) they had family responsibilities, (4) there was no vacancy in the area, (5) there was no incentive to change positions, and (6) they were unable to relocate. Grady indicated that one of the biggest obstacles for women entering administration is their unwillingness to apply for these positions. Women often state they are content with their present position and do not want the added responsibility of being an administrator.

More recently, DeFelice (1999) conducted a related study to examine why some women in Texas obtained administrator certification but did not move into administration. Like Grady (1992) and Krchniak (1977), she found that a major factor was women's low aspirations for becoming administrators. Thirty-seven percent of the subjects in her study reported they liked their current position and 23% reported they were not interested in becoming an administrator. These were two of the most frequent responses the women gave as to why they had not applied for an administrative position. Although DeFelice's study took place 22 years after Krchniak's study and seven years after Grady's, the findings were quite similar.

The studies by Krchniak (1977), Grady (1992), and DeFelice (1999) provide insight into why women who are certified as administrators do not move into administrative positions. Concerned about the lack of information regarding men's reasons for not obtaining administration positions, Buell (2001) replicated the DeFelice and Grady studies, but surveyed both men and women. During the 1999-2000 school year, 140 educators in Tennessee who held administrative certificates but who were not employed in an administrative capacity were surveyed to determine their reasons for not holding a position in administration. Of the subjects, 93 were female and 47 were male. Most (82%) were married, white (94%), and still had children living at home (49%). Buell's survey results showed that:

- Both the men and the women did not apply for administrative positions primarily due to liking their current position, not wanting the added responsibility of administration, family constraints, and simply not being interested in being an administrator. Both men and women ranked "not wanting the added responsibility" high on their list of reasons for not pursuing administrative positions. These findings are similar to the earlier studies of women conducted by DeFelice, Grady, and Krchniak.

- Both men and women under the age of 34 said that, although they had obtained ttheir administrative credentials, they would not seek administrative positions immediately but at some undetermined time in the future. Those over the age of 47 were more likely to check "Not interested in being an administrator" and "Don't want the added responsibility," indicating their lack of desire to ever pursue administration.
- Men as well as women reported experiencing discrimination. The men stated that increased efforts to recruit women and minorities into educational administration had made it more difficult for men to be considered viable candidates. One male respondent stated his frustration with the system in general, saying, "I am tired of the political games and the stress... the pay and gratitude don't equal the frustration. They can keep their job!" One male reported experiencing age discrimination.
- In response to questions regarding barriers such as family responsibilities, unwillingness to relocate, lack of encouragement to enter administration, and discouragement to enter administration, no marked differences between the men and women were found. Unwillingness to move to obtain an administrative position is a barrier often cited for women. Of the 93 women in this study, 21% were willing to relocate, and of the 47 men, 25% were willing to relocate.
- A higher proportion of males (34%) than females (9%) in this study reported having left previous administrative positions. The reasons given for leaving administration were the heavy workload, job-related stress, long working hours, gender issues, family obligations, and promotions.

Closing the Wrong Gap

The work by Shakeshaft in the 1980s brought to light problems women encounter when seeking to move into educational administration. Much of this early work detailed barriers women had to overcome, particularly when seeking leadership positions, and helped explain the underrepresentation of women in educational administration. Since that early work, studies have continued to detail the internal and external barriers with which women must contend. Due to this increasing body of knowledge concerning gender, much attention has been given to women's problems and possible solutions to the dilemmas they face. Three frequently cited barriers faced by women who might otherwise be considered candidates for positions in educational administration are the lack of aspiration to become an administrator, family obligations and personal restraints, and failure to obtain administrative credentials and apply for an administrative position (Criswell & Betz, 1995; DeFelice, 1999; & Grady, 1992). Results of studies by Krchniak (1977), Grady (1992), and DeFelice (1999) show that even if women obtain their credentials, they may not go on to apply for a position. Traditionally, the fact that females are faced with the issue of balancing both career and family has been listed as a barrier for women, although Pankake (1995) noted that males with families could also face this internal barrier.

Studies that include both men and women from fields other than education also point to a surprising number of similarities between the two groups. Carbone (1991) conducted research to compare how female and male employees in service positions cope with work stress, family stress, economic stress, parenting stress, work-family conflict, and family restructuring (divorce, children leaving home, etc.). With the exception of family restructuring being of greater concern to women, no significant differences between men and women were reported. Cleary and Mechanic (1983) also found that having children at home -- and, more specifically, the age of the youngest child -- is negatively correlated with both family stress and work-family conflict for both males and females. Other studies have concluded that family roles are more significant to men than their paid work roles (Dytell & Schwartzberg, 1988; Pleck, 1985). Voydanoff (1984) examined time as a barrier for both males and females and found that the number of hours worked is related to the quality of both family and work life. Furthermore, those individuals working more than 37 hours per week, as is required for school administrators, are more likely to have higher levels of work stress and work-family conflict regardless of gender. The research clearly shows both males and females face internal barriers as they pursue administrative positions.

A study by Boehlert and O'Connell (1999) suggests that, in some instances, men face barriers not so often encountered by women. Boehlert and O'Connell studied practicing administrators to determine why they did not seek advancement in their districts. For example, they wondered why some assistant principals did not seek a principalship and some assistant superintendents did not apply for a superintendency position. The men in Boehlert and O'Connell's study reported age discrimination as a factor in their reluctance to seek promotions. Similarly, the men but not the women in Buell's (2001) study reported being passed over for administrative positions because of age.

The growing body of knowledge on gender suggests that men's experiences may not be as different from women's as was once thought and that problems that were at one time *women's issues* are now issues for men as well. For example, Buell (2001) found that many of the men in her study reported that relocating for the purpose of obtaining an administrative position was not attractive; that family responsibilities were important to them; that the job in which they were serving was as good, if not better, than a stressful, highly political leadership position (so much so that some left administration to return to the classroom); and that they had even been overtly discouraged from entering administration.

It may be time to take a new look at old issues. Barriers for men entering school leadership positions need to be examined as closely as obstacles faced by women. If the administrator shortage is to be addressed, knowing reasons why educators -- both men and women -- are choosing not to enter the field is important. If districts want to increase their pool of applicants and if administrator preparation programs are to address the realities confronting those in the field, focusing on barriers, not gender, is part of the answer.

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Chapter 29

Facilitating the Paradigm Shift: A Win-Win Mentoring Strategy for Increasing the Numbers of Women and Minorities in Educational Leadership

Sandra Lee Gupton

As I have matured into a senior female faculty member,
I have come to realize more keenly the opportunities and
the responsibility I have to facilitate the careers of
female and minority students and junior faculty.

Without question, the diversity paradigm in higher education faculty is shifting... be it ever so slowly. The most recent statistics (1999) on postsecondary education faculty available from the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Educational Research and Improvement indicate an increasingly diverse faculty in higher education. Data comparing the composition of full-time faculty in institutions of higher education show the slow but steady increase in the representation of women and minority members (*Digest of Education Statistics,* 1999; NCES, 1997):

	1993	1995	1997
Number of full-time faculty	545,706	550,822	568,719
Percent of female faculty	33.4%	34.6%	41.0%
Percent of minority faculty	11.9%	12.9%	16.9%

The representation of female and minority faculty varies widely across various academic disciplines. In education, women constitute about 46% of all education faculty, and they have become the majority (64.4%) among new faculty (Digest of Education Statistics, 1999; Education Statistics Quarterly, 1997). Thus, while women and minorities remain underrepresented among higher education faculty, their numbers are improving steadily with females taking the lead among new faculty in colleges of education.

The number of women and minorities who hold administrative positions in higher education is a separate issue, however, and the equity picture is far less positive than among the ranks of faculty. Much like the K-12 situation, women and minorities in higher education remain marginally represented in positions of administration, where most of the authority for decision making resides. "It is clearly evident," write Arlton and Davis (1993), "that the proportion of women administrators [in academic administration] decreases as the level of position and responsibility increases" (p. 95).

Even among the faculty, the numbers of women and minorities decline as rank increases. For example, in 1991 women represented 47% of all instructors, 40% of assistant professors, 28% of associate professors, and only 15% of full professors (Grady, 2000, p. 95). Statistics from the 1997 *Education Statistics Quarterly* (NCES) reveal that the percentages of minority faculty similarly reflect an inverse relationship with professorial rank -- from 20% at the lecturer level, 20% at the assistant level, and 14% at the associate level, to 11% at the full professor level. University and college president, vice-president, dean, and chairperson positions continue to be dominated by white males.

As the growing numbers of women and minority faculty gain clout through

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experience and seniority, a simultaneous increase in their numbers occupying administrative posts should emerge. Such an expectation cannot be taken for granted, however. It can and should be attended and strategically facilitated by those of us, particularly senior faculty, who are presently in higher education. One important facilitative role is that of mentoring colleagues and students who have the talent and leadership potential needed in the field. While this role should serve all graduate students, it should be made especially available to female and minority students and colleagues who likely have had less opportunity for such support.

There are many ways to mentor, encourage, and nurture graduate students. The role of faculty advisor is ripe with opportunity to aid and abet students' careers. While teaching and advising students are traditional roles for faculty, they oftentimes are marginalized when compared with expectations for faculty's performance as researcher and writer. The advising role is too often viewed as an obligation rather than as the exciting, rewarding opportunity it is to contribute to the profession in significant, lasting ways.

Over the 10 years I have been in higher education, I have acquired an increasing appreciation for the potential benefits of serving as an advisor to graduate students and have had the pleasure and privilege of interacting with many promising school leaders working on their graduate degrees in administration. As I have matured into a senior female faculty member, I have come to realize more keenly the opportunities and the responsibility I have to facilitate the careers of female and minority students and junior faculty. Senior faculty, especially females and minority senior faculty, are in turnkey positions for facilitating the paradigm shift toward true gender and ethnic parity in education. Shaping a new paradigm of educational leadership can be facilitated by strategically supporting women and minority candidates and by being an active participant across the department and university in helping to shape their graduate experiences in new and heretofore untapped dimensions.

Each university and department is contextually unique and, therefore, strategies to promote women and minorities must be those that are timely and appropriate for the particular people involved in these one-of-a-kind environments. However, sharing with others the various strategies that work well in our own situations can stimulate thinking about and raise levels of sensitivity to the needs of female and minority students and faculty. It is in this spirit that I share one such support strategy that has proved to have multiple benefits for all parties involved -- the doctoral teaching internship at the University of Southern Mississippi (USM). This internship program is one of those wonderful win-win problem-solvers that can be tailored to the strengths and weaknesses of the mentor, the student, or a junior faculty member, and has the potential to work across many settings and in varied contexts. Everyone -- the university, education faculty, doctoral students, and master's level students -- stands to benefit from this strategy. All of the possible benefits are valuable, but most important is the benefit to doctoral students and inexperienced faculty - particularly women and minorities -- in realizing more completely their talents and skills as potential leaders in education. Furthermore, it just may plant a seed or whet a young aspiring K-12 administrator to one day join a faculty of educational leadership and become part of a growing force of facilitators of the paradigm shift among the constituency of faculty and administration in higher education, thus passing on to other future leaders what they themselves have had the benefit of experiencing.

USM's New Program for the Master's Degree in Educational Administration

The recently reconstructed master's program in educational administration at USM now consists of three semesters of integrated course work (12 semester hours of credit per semester). Each semester's curriculum is referred to as a block of instruction that replaces the more traditional assortment of individual courses. Block one is titled *The Landscape of Leadership*; block two is *The Principal as an Instructional Leader*; and block three is *The Principal as a Manager*.

Students enrolled in the program are placed in cohorts of 10 to 20 students and remain together for the program's duration. The program's blocks are arranged developmentally and, therefore, must be taken in a sequenced fashion. Each block of the program has a team of instructors consisting of a lead facilitator and an additional faculty member, a clinical professor (practicing school administrator), and from one to three doctoral interns. The instructional team often works together in the classroom with students and meets regularly to plan for instruction and to evaluate their own and the students' performance. This planning time is essential to the success of the program and is ripe with opportunity to interact with, learn from, and assist aspiring faculty among the doctoral students serving as interns.

Development of the Doctoral Teaching Internship

A number of simultaneously occurring events set in motion the circumstances for creating what we have come to call the teaching internship for USM's doctoral students in educational administration. The Department of Educational Leadership and Research was approaching its second year of operating the newly designed master's level program to prepare school administrators that involves team-teaching in integrated, 12 semester credit hour blocks of course content. In planning for the first block of the program, several problems converged: (1) the number of faculty assigned to the team of teachers for the first semester's block was reduced from four to two due to budget cuts; (2) conspicuously missing from the faculty's team was a minority member; and (3) also lacking within the faculty team was the desired level of expertise and competence to teach several of the technology objectives required in the block's content. Thus, it became quite obvious that greater diversity, additional skill, and sheer numbers of people among the block's instructional team were badly needed.

There I was, sitting at my desk one afternoon in May, feeling the squeeze of this dilemma as the lead instructor of this semester in the program, deliberating the situation, and trying to conjure up the talent that our scarce resources had eliminated from our teaching team when one of my doctoral students appeared in the doorway. No, the student was not an apparition, but was nothing short of a miracle nonetheless! It seems the student, Sherrie, was interested in doing an independent study for three hours of course credit. She wondered if I had any ideas for a project that would be good for her and worthy of the course credit. Sherrie, a bright, articulate, technologically talented, African American female was, at that time, one of our doctoral students in-residence. The faculty, staff, and many students already knew Sherrie quite well and recognized her exceptional leadership potential. And, while her most immediate career interest was in K-12 leadership, I also knew she had a latent interest in teaching in a leadership department one day. When I babbled out all that was spilling over in my muddled brain about an idea that was only just now beginning to take shape, her eyes lit up and she, too, got swept up in the momentum of planning and making the most of this opportunity... for all of us. The synergy of the moment was one I shall never forget. That day, Sherrie and I developed the doctoral teaching internship, a plan that met Sherrie's needs, the program's students' needs, and the department's needs with everyone seeming to benefit from the arrangement. This idea was shared with other teams of instructors in the second and third semester blocks of the master's program who immediately replicated the idea. The doctoral teaching internship has proved easy to administer, beneficial to the department, and a viable means of nurturing graduate students' potential as educational leaders and grooming them possibly to return to higher education one day as faculty themselves.

Multiple, Mutual Benefits

Using doctoral interns as teaching partners in the department's new administrator preparation program has become a comfortable, mutually beneficial way for doctoral students and junior staff to work closely with veteran professors as they plan for and deliver a complex, cutting-edge program of leadership development. Students earn course credit and are privy to working closely with veteran staff. Veteran staff, in turn, benefit from the many talents and practitioner orientation of the doctoral interns.

The planning sessions, while focused on the master's level program and students, provide ample opportunity for mentoring-by-modeling and coaching. The veteran professor does not have to set aside time for one-on-one mentoring sessions. The doctoral intern actually contributes to the work of the instructional team in ways that benefit and facilitate the work of the veteran staff who oversees and nurtures the less experienced junior staff and interns. Time spent planning for instruction is not seen as indulgent, as are many other forms of mentoring, but as fundamental work shared by colleagues of varying skills and levels of career achievement.

This past summer, the block one teaching team included three doctoral students, one senior professor, one junior professor, and two practicing school administrators who shared one clinical professor position for the team. I continue to be awed by the interning students' contributions to the program for aspiring administrators. They bring a wealth of talent, diversity, and fresh ideas to the faculty team. Many are practicing school administrators with recent K-12 school experience, which helps the entire team stay current with what is happening in schools and school districts. Their recent field experience provides valuable information and insight to university faculty, most of whom have not been K-12 educational practitioners for some time.

Never having had a similar experience myself as a doctoral student in the late 1970s, I can only imagine how I might have been impacted by such an opportunity to work with experienced faculty. While I taught classes as a graduate student, I did so without so much as an experienced professor's syllabus to follow. There was no one, not a solitary professor, who volunteered or was made available to me as an advisor or any other support system for teaching the courses I was assigned as a graduate assistant. The faculty I approached for help were either too busy to make the time or not interested in swapping ideas or sharing their expertise with an underling. To this day, I can vividly recall how alone and unattached to the full-time faculty I felt and operated as a teaching graduate assistant in my own doctoral experience. I would have welcomed and also greatly benefited from opportunities to interact with faculty in ways similar to those offered by USM's doctoral internship experience which include:

- being a full-fledged member of a faculty team with regularly scheduled planning meetings for sharing ideas and problems, giving each other feedback, and strategizing for best instruction;
- having faculty advisors promote interns' strengths and talents by recognizing their potential as members of a higher education teaching team;
- having the opportunity to be a part of the delivery of a program of administrator preparation that has received national acclaim in its concepf, content, and delivery;
- receiving course credit through a constructivist-oriented interpretation of independent study; and
- being a part of a program that actually practices what it preaches and serves as a model for best practices, regardless of the level.

To gain a better perspective from the three doctoral teaching interns who participated as members of the 2001 block one instructional team, I asked them to write a reflective essay on their reaction to the arrangement at the semester's close. Latricia Karlskin, a young woman in her early 30s, presented a highly successful seminar in the program on Steven Covey's *Seven Habits of Highly Effective People* (1993). Latricia's essay included the following comments regarding the "team" effort and its impact on her as a member:

> I was impressed with the organization and teamwork of the faulty within the block. There was an opportunity to learn from others and teach with others.... The teamwork that is involved with the block program is phenomenal. Instructors work together to create a schedule that is beneficial to all involved. The classes are established where information is built on previous instruction. Team meetings are organized efficiently. Evaluations [from students] are shared with the team of instructors. The instructors take the evaluations seriously and consider suggestions. They believe in making changes to make the program effective.... The block one instructional team is definitely effective.

Lisa Hall, the only African American member of the instructional team, focused her essay on the power of the mentoring relationships she formed in this experience:

> My experience as a teaching member of the cohort team has been phenomenal. I have had two wonderful mentors [both female professors] who have taught me how to lead and given me the courage to do so. What better way to conclude my doctoral studies at the University of Southern Mississippi than to serve as an intern for the cohort in block one? This experience allowed me to progress from a student to an instructor and gave me the freedom to apply the knowledge, values, and research skills that are such an integral part of the Educational Leadership Program at USM.
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> As a novice female administrator, I recognize and applaud my mentors for their guidance, support, and encouragement. I challenge other aspiring and beginning administrators to connect with others who have gone before and done so effectively. It truly makes the transformation toward effective leadership more meaningful!

Lisa assisted the block one students with their PowerPoint proficiency and led them in discussions on diversity issues in educational leadership and the career hurdles women and minorities often face. The student cohort consisted of five females -- three Caucasians and two African Americans -- and two Caucasian males. She and Latricia formed a powerful alliance as they team-led the Covey seminar.

Teresa Burton, technology coordinator for a school district in southern Mississippi, was the third teaching intern in the summer program for entry-level school administrators. Her contribution to the team and students in the area of technology was superb. It exceeded the team's and students' expectations for learning about storage and retrieval of critical data, maximizing the potential of Word, and using PowerPoint and Excel to make reports and organize the plethora of school data into useful formats. Teresa's essay was long and quite reflective. Here are excerpted portions of her in-depth reaction to participating as a member of the block one teaching team:

> ... The opportunity to work with such a talented instructional team is an invaluable, once-in-a-lifetime occurrence. I have gained as much from the planning sessions as from the class sessions. Participating in discussions concerning the best ways to make data-driven decisions has been a great learning experience. While I feel I can contribute to the discussion in a knowledgeable manner when technology is at issue, I have mostly listened and learned from an instructional team that has

> thought long and hard about making data-driven decisions, and has come to important realizations and conclusions. The supplementary readings required of the participants have proven to be beneficial and applicable to my position as well.
>
> ... My participation in the program will benefit my entire school district. As the one person in the district most capable of electronically manipulating data and deriving statistical information, I see it as my obligation to contribute to the success of the district in this manner.
>
> ... The cohort's program addresses all the major recommendations by the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration for the professional field of educational administration. I am able to speak not just as a reader of a book, but also as an individual who is not only seeing first hand reform efforts successfully applied, but also more importantly, taking an active part in the systemic change of educational administration preparation programs.
>
> ... Finally, the best part of the experience has been working with such a prestigious group of educators -- best of all, now I can call them colleagues!

Doctoral teaching interns are most certainly not the sole beneficiaries of participation in the team teaching experience. Veteran and junior faculty and graduate students also benefit in rich and rewarding ways from such a collaborative teaching team with diverse levels of experience, skills, and backgrounds. While the coordination and planning required for such a teaming approach are time and effort intensive, the quality of the experiences for everyone involved compensates beyond measure for the inputs required.

The team-taught, block one program experience has been a win-win strategy that seems to grow more beneficial over time as we uncover better ways to tap faculty and student potentials and make the program better through our collective energy and strength. When done well, team teaching can greatly enhance the preparation of entry-level administrative students and reward those instructional members involved with an unparalleled opportunity to learn from and support each other in new and exciting ways.

Such is the stuff true paradigm shifts are made of... people doing their best in their day-to-day dealings with others to increase their skill and understanding, therein to facilitate a better way for us to live and work together.

Implications for Increasing the Numbers of Women and Minority Educational Leaders

This has been said before, but its continuing relevancy bears repeating: It is critical and only right that special attention be paid to those underrepresented classes of people who traditionally have had little opportunity for mentoring and sponsorship in administrative careers in education. "Women," asserts Karen Beam (2000) in her article on mentoring in higher education, "are becoming an increasingly stronger force in the world of higher education; however, many still are not benefiting from a proven strategy for raising their level of job satisfaction and career success. Frequently educational experiences do not prepare professionals to enter and manage university careers.... [O]ne possible road to ameliorating this challenge is through the mentoring process" (pp. 89-90). Beam continues to discuss the problems for females created by so few available mentors in the world of academe, especially among female faculty and administrators who generally have limited time due to tremendous duties and responsibilities -- both at work and at home. Thus, she suggests an expanded view of mentoring, which includes "shared power, inclusiveness, empowerment, connectedness, and focus on the process more than outcomes" (p. 91). This expanded view of mentoring can have mutual, multiple benefits for mentor, mentee, and those who witness such relationships and then use them as a model worth emulating.

Senior faculty must think outside the box and be proactive when considering ways to help junior faculty and graduate students, especially women and minorities. We must be alert and make concerted efforts each day to take advantage of the opportunities we have as senior faculty, especially those of us who are females or minorities, to nurture the strengths and skills of all students and faculty with particular attention to those underrepresented groups. In shifting the paradigm of thinking about who belongs in the leadership pool, we do more than help those who heretofore have been excluded from that select few. By broadening the understanding of leadership potential to include diverse people who are recognized and promoted for the right reasons -- because of their skill, talent, and commitment to be school leaders for children's welfare -we not only have the opportunity to make a difference for the ones we are able to help in the here and now; but in so doing, we are able to shape the future for generations of people to come.

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Chapter 30

Hispanic Women in Educational Leadership: Barriers to and Strategies for Career Advancement

Carolyn McCreight

Legislators, state and local educational leaders, and communities must formulate strategies directed at Hispanic women to improve graduation rates, college completion rates, and career advancement in the education profession.

Hispanic women administrators are highly underrepresented in our nation's schools, at a time when the number of Hispanic, school-age children continues to grow. With increasing numbers of Hispanic students in schools, there is a need for Hispanic female representation in all areas of educational administration, particularly in the principalship and superintendency. To increase Hispanic female representation in the principalship and superintendency, barriers to career advancement must be identified and strategies to overcome these barriers must be developed. A brief review of the literature about women in the education profession, in general, and Hispanic female representation in the principalship and superintendency, specifically, will assist legislators, state and local educational leaders, and communities in formulating strategies to improve graduation rates, college completion rates, and career advancement in the education profession.

Women in Education

From the beginning of American history to the end of the 18th century, teaching was a man's domain. In Colonial America, women were allowed to teach only in Dame Schools, which taught basic skills to young children. The Dame Schools were considered less important than secondary schools, academies, and colleges where male teachers taught (Campbell, 1984; Shakeshaft, 1989). In early America, male teachers were considered permanent employees, while women were considered transients because they were expected and often required to leave teaching after marriage (Ginn, 1989).

Educational institutions adopted scientific management theories in the early 20th century resulting in the separation of teaching from administration (Patterson, 1994). Men were considered more suited for educational administration and the belief that women had a better understanding of children spurred the conversion of teaching from a male to female domain (Campbell, 1984). National statistics compiled in 1970 revealed that 30% of the teaching force was female; by 1999, this number had jumped to 87% (American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, 1999).

Women in Educational Administration

Given society's continued attitudes regarding women in leadership positions, the slow rate at which females are assuming educational leadership positions is not surprising, in spite of the overrepresentation of females in the teaching profession. The National Center for Educational Statistics (1996) did not begin collecting data by gender for the principalship and superintendency until the 1970s. In 1971, females occupied 15% of the

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nation's public school principalships. Between 1987 and 1994, the percentage of female principals in public schools rose from 25% to 35%. In 1971, women superintendents represented less than 1% of the U. S. superintendent positions. Today, female superintendents hold 20% of the superintendencies in the nation (Siegel, 1999). The low percentages of women serving as principals and superintendents in our nation's public schools, especially when compared to the percentage of female teachers, suggests that women have difficulty moving out of the classroom and into campus and district leadership positions (Funk, 1986; Holloway, 1998; Lee, 1996; McGrath, 1992).

Hispanic Women in Educational Administration

Between the 1987 and 1994 academic years, the number of minority principals increased from 13% to 16%, with Hispanics accounting for 4.1% of principals. In 1998, 4.5% of the principals in the nation were Hispanic (Educational Research Service, National Association of Secondary Principals, & National Association of Elementary Principals, 1998).

Representation of racial minorities in the superintendency increased from 3.1% in 1987 to 3.5% in 1993 (Montenegro, 1993). The American Association of School Administrators' 1989-1990 study of school administrators found that 4.6% of the nation's superintendents were women and 0.4% were minority women.

Barriers to Career Advancement and Strategies for Increasing Participation

Due to the low representation of minorities, in general, and Hispanic women, in particular, in positions of educational leadership, a review of the barriers to career advancement in educational administration is warranted. Suggested strategies for eliminating barriers are also presented.

Educational Progress

Barrier: In 1999, 31% of all Hispanic women age 25 and older had not completed high school; 30% were high school graduates, with no college; 17% had some college; 7% had associate degrees; and 15% were college graduates (Women's Bureau, 2000). Since so few Hispanic women complete college and enter the education profession, their potential for employment as school administrators is limited.

Strategy: Professional and community organizations must be encouraged to develop mentoring strategies to educate Hispanic females and their families regarding theimportance of completing high school and college. Tangible assistance must also be provided to Hispanic women in the form of financial aid, academic tutoring, and on-campus child care (Berman, 1997).

Family Involvement

Barrier: Lack of family involvement in education may be a barrier to college completion for Hispanic women (Flores, 1994).

Strategy: Encourage community organizations to educate families on the importance of family support for education attainment (Flores, 1994).

Transitions Through Higher Education

Barrier: The vast majority of Hispanic women who attend college begin at a community college. Transferring from community colleges to four-year collegesand universities can be a barrier. Community college credits may not transfer, which requires added financial commitment and time to secure a four-year degree. Transfer rates from two-year colleges to four-year colleges and universities often fall below 10% for minority students (Berman, 1997).

Strategy: Encourage community colleges and universities to develop strategies to assist Hispanic females in making a successful transition from community colleges to four-year colleges and universities by strengthening mentoring programs and career counseling programs. Articulation agreements between two- and four-year colleges and universities must be strengthened and enforced to smooth the transition from one institution to another with minimal loss of academic credit (Berman, 1997).

Isolation

Barrier: While many students have difficulty leaving home and community to attend a four-year college, this seems especially true for Hispanic women (Berman, 1997).

Strategy: Peer and faculty mentors for first-year Hispanic female college students should be identified to lessen the stress associated with leaving home to pursue a degree (Berman, 1997).

Socialization

Barrier: Hispanic women pursuing positions in educational leadership are often unfamiliar with socialization and networking strategies (Russell & Wright,1990).

Strategy: Mentors in the administrative ranks should educate Hispanic women on how educational administration organizations operate and encourage them to join these organizations. These women must also learn the importance of taking advantage of socialization opportunities, such as attending social events and athletic activities as well as other functions where school personnel gather to network (Flores, 1994).

Discrimination

Barrier: Research has shown that when selecting leadership candidates, prospective employers tend to choose people like themselves (Housen, 1995). Because most search consultants, school board members, and superintendents are white males, women and minorities are not selected as protégés or candidates as often as are white men (Housen, 1995; Marshall, 1985; Mendoza-Morse, 1997; Rodman, 1987; Shakeshaft, 1987; Schneider, 1991).

Strategy: Female and minority candidates for the principalship and superintendency must be extremely adept at shifting the focus of search consultants, school board members, and superintendents away from their race and gender to the "knowledgeable, professional educator applying for the position" (Chase & Bell,1994; Mertz, & McNeely, 1990). In addition, educators must systematically recruitment and train females and minorities for principalships and superintendencies (Educational Research Service, National Association of Secondary Principals, & National Association of Elementary Principals, 1998).

Professional Advancement and Compensation

Barrier: Many talented Hispanic women select career paths that offer more opportunities for advancement and higher salaries than school administration offers (Whitmire, 2000).

Strategy: Educate legislators on the importance of funding educator salaries that are comparable to those paid in business and industry.

Summary

Hispanic women are among the fastest growing population groups in the nation (Women's Bureau, 2000). Role models of the same gender and race enhance American children's impressions of what they can become and the school is the organization that most directly transmits the values of our culture. If we support the ideology that there should be widespread opportunity for all, then that opportunity should be evident in our schools (Rodman, 1987). Talented Hispanic women, therefore, should be encouraged to pursue not only teaching, but also positions in educational leadership (Chao, 1991).

Barriers to Hispanic female career advancement to the principalship and superintendency include inadequate support for young mothers struggling to finish high school and college, inadequate mentoring programs to assist students in completing high school and pursing a college degree, insufficient focus on developing programs to encourage students in two-year colleges to complete a four-year degree, few programs to educate families on the importance of a college education, and educator salaries that are not competitive with salaries in business and industry.

Strategies educators might develop to increase female Hispanic participation in the principalship and superintendency include strengthening community college and university mentoring partnerships that support minority female students' progress in education and educating minority organizations on the importance of strengthening strategies to support Hispanic female education attainment. Legislators must recognize that as long as salaries in education are low compared to salaries in business and industry, talented Hispanic females will often choose employment where pay and opportunities for career advancement are greater. Lastly, educators must systematically recruit female and minority candidates for positions in educational administration.

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Chapter 31

The Changing Face of School Leadership

Cazilda Campos Steele

Women can be confident that if they network and mentor one another, forming strong professional learning communities, they will assume those positions in the very near future.

Over the last 50 years, the face of school leadership has changed tremendously. More and more women and minorities are leading our public institutions of learning. However, according to Mary Lee Fitzgerald, Director of Education Programs for the Wallace-Reader's Digest Funds,

> A major crisis confronts us, at the same time public school enrollments are growing, retirements are soaring... modest pay, long hours, uneven resources, problematic authority (and) increased expectations of the public make this job in a competitive market a no winner... (Henry, 2000, p.70).

With these shifting conditions comes a changing attitude in society about women in the roles of leadership. Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) describes 21st century education as a "world undergoing profound, social, economic, political, and cultural transformation... the social geography... between institutions are dissolving, roles are becoming less segregated, and borders are becoming increasingly irrelevant" (p. 52). Historically, cultural diversity and changing families have placed a distance between the relationships formed between administrators, students, and parents. In reality, many have seen parents as intruders rather than as essential resources. The social geography of the 21st century demands strong communication among all those involved in the education of children. Who better to lead our educational institutions amongst these parameters than women? Since women comprise 75% of the educational workforce (Skrla, 2001) and are an "underutilized source of talent and potential" (Mertz, Welch, & Henderson, 1990, p. 21), it only makes sense that those in power would start to look to women to serve in educational leadership positions. Few women currently hold upper-level administrative positions, relative to their numbers in the teaching force. Women are discovering that being mentored during the early stages of their leadership careers and developing a network or professional learning community are effective experiences that help them manage the problems that administrators face. Professional learning communities provide forms of mentoring that allow women to share their wisdom with one another. Members of the same professional learning community "share a sense of identity and common values... they share a common language" (Grossman, Wineburg, & Woolworth, 2001, p. 946). The key to a professional learning community is that it provides an ongoing avenue for continued learning, which enables women leaders to establish their place on the professional landscape of leadership.

I recently interviewed the new female superintendent for a large urban school district in which she has been employed for nearly three decades. I received a history lesson while we spoke. She reminded me that women today have more opportunities than ever to serve in any role they choose because our society and culture have changed -- society

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is more accepting of women in the upper echelons of leadership and managerial positions in almost any setting. The new female superintendent recounted to me that when she was growing up some 50 years ago, women had only three paths to journey in their adult life -- nursing, teaching, and getting married. And to be a part of the nursing or teaching profession, a woman needed to be among the best and the brightest. In her opinion, "the qualities for success in leadership positions for women have always been there." It is just now that our society is coming to accept women in these positions.

Today's administrators are a very diverse group. Some 40 to 50 years ago, school leadership positions were filled almost exclusively with white males (Kowalski, 1995). We are currently undergoing a sweeping change throughout the country in terms of our demographic make-up, socioeconomic status, and how we envision the schools that teach our children. These changes have caused society to look more closely at who they want to lead their schools in this new century. The Norman Rockwell family -- "the father working outside the home, the housewife mother, and two or more children -- remains a childhood memory" (Hodgkinson, 2002, p. 103). Census 2000 reveals that more and more families are structured around single parent homes and grandparents raising their children's children. Also, a larger number of immigrants are entering schools, which requires teachers and administrators to deal with educating those who may not know the English language or, for that matter, have never been in a formal school setting. Safety has also become a major issue in schools today. Administrators have to make sure now more than ever that students are prepared for any type of violence that slips through the school doors. All of the above factors influence the high stakes testing environment that impacts how well the school compares to others with its same demographic constituency. The accountability system has changed the face of how children are educated. Since school and district effectiveness are primarily measured by student performance on a standardized test, the pressure is enormous for those whose jobs depend on the children taking the test. Societal demands have forced changes on the educational landscape and, these demands have, in turn, changed the faces of those leading our schools.

Leadership Through Women's Eyes

As increasing numbers of women acquire campus and district leadership positions, this new generation of leaders is redefining our conceptions of *leadership*. Contrary to the popular view, leadership is not power. Rather, leadership is about serving others and supporting those within the community. "It is about compassion, the day to day practice of social justice, and the true meaning of being a servant to a community" (Hilbert, 2000, p. 16). Leadership through the eyes of women is very different from the old paradigm of efficiency, technology, and the bottom line (Bolman & Deal, 2001). Women see learning organizations as places where stories are shared about the experiences of people within the learning organization. It is essential to talk about the history of the learning organization through the trials and tribulations felt within it. The stories people live and tell, and re-live and re-tell, are the embodiment of the spirit of the learning organization (Bolman & Deal, 2001). This approach to leadership recognizes the gifts and value that people give to the learning organization. Women are now leading organizations with a true heart. The caring side must flourish to overcome the technical rationalism that has pervaded our public schools and rendered human experience and caring irrelevant.

Why has this happened? For too long we have rushed to beat the hours in the day, to work longer and harder. Women are finding that in order to survive the many roles in which they live, they need to nurture the environments in which they work. They want to establish schools and school districts that embody the moral lives they wish to lead. The majority of women pour their whole heart and soul into their work and want to create environments that welcome all members as creative collaborative partners in the education of children. As Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) have suggested, the boundaries that once existed between the different levels of employees in an organization are dissolving. This notion leads one to believe that we have finally realized we can no longer lead our schools and school districts as in the past using the industrial model of education. With schools and school districts facing enormous pressures for students to perform on accountability instruments and for schools to address all aspects of the cognitive, physical, emotional, and social development of students, the time has come to change who and how we are leading our schools.

Professional Learning Communities

Craig (1995) focuses on the notion that there is a need to provide teachers opportunities to collaborate and form collegial authentic friendships. Opportunities to share with others come in the form of "knowledge communities" (Craig, 1995, p. 156). Creating these communities of knowing for administrators would allow them "a safe place where the past-present-future continuum of... knowledge is honored and preserved..." (Craig, 2001, p. 326). These types of learning communities foster growth, provide support, and energize its members. Professional learning communities provide a legitimate space in which administrators can draw from each other's experiences and solve the problems brought forth to the group. Professional learning communities offer novice administrators the freedom to shape and be shaped by the experiences of those in the learning community. Knowledge communities add a depth to knowledge that is essential for beginning and experienced administrators. This method of mentoring is beneficial to all and will strengthen the experience and knowledge of all those who participate.

The Key -- Mentoring

Educators know that the world of the superintendent or principal, while exciting, challenging, and often personally rewarding, is also a life filled with considerable anxiety, frustration, self-doubt, and loneliness. But there is also a corresponding part of the world of school administrators in many school systems that proclaims, "You're the boss. Fix your own problems and don't ask for help from anyone. If you can't do the job on your own, you're a failure." Indeed, the image of the leader as the Lone Ranger is very much alive in the world of school administration (Daresh, 2001, p. 3).

Do you need to be a Lone Ranger? Absolutely not! The key to surviving the rigor of school administration is to find a mentor or create a professional learning community that will nurture you while you are a novice. If you look around, you can identify those special people who have previously nurtured you. I can think of many who have mentored me through the halls of school administration and new mentors are now guiding me through the doctoral process.

Some of the best memories I have as an administrator are the years that I was an assistant principal. Some people shudder to think how anyone would have good memories of such a demanding and *dirty* job. One thing is for certain... there was never a lack of advice or mentorship. My principal, the other assistant principals, experienced teachers, and a multitude of other administrators in the district provided a circle of support that was comforting and helpful during tense situations, times when big decisions needed to be made, and just plain rough times. The professional learning community that I had formed during those years was an enormous assistance to me as I learned to become a more effective administrator. And that community continues to support me today.

Several years later, I moved into a secondary principalship in a small, rural district and discovered early on that my circle of support had shrunk immensely. It was my first principalship and I quickly found out that it was going to be a very lonely job because there was no other woman secondary school principal. With over 900 districts in Texas that have enrollments of less than 1000 students, there are other women who continue to encounter similar situations, especially those serving in remote areas of the state.

One way to alleviate this sense of loneliness is by establishing a mentorship relationship. We do this routinely with beginning teachers. Why not with beginning administrators? Are administrations supposed to know it all? Are they expected to be experts at everything? The higher one gets into the upper levels of the administrative ranks, the number of individuals -- and especially women -- in similar positions gets smaller. Women need to develop significant relationships with others in their professional learning communities. It is important to bond with those of similar interests in the profession. These ties help women find a place in the field of administration, help them learn from one another, and give them the support they need to be successful. The wisdom that is shared will leave a legacy to those who participate and continue to lead.

Our mentors seem to come into our lives at key moments. One of the most important times for these individuals of experience and wisdom to enter our lives is at transitional points along our career journey. When you enter a position for the first time, no matter how much experience you have, it is important to have a mentor; someone who can welcome you into the new professional world and acquaint you with "its values, customs, resources, and cast of characters" (Levinson, 1978, p. 98). Novice administrators, especially, need a support system during the first three years of their tenure. Mentors are valuable because during these initial years they can help novices build confidence and endure the expectations placed upon them by their districts and communities.

Mentors provide novice administrators the skills necessary to deal with the day-to-day demands of the position. How many times would you have felt better about the decisions you made or were going to have to make if there had only been a caring ear to listen? Good mentors listen and sometimes give advice. Mentors want to be sure they guide novice administrators to make good decisions for their own particular situation and circumstances. Having an empathetic listener is sometimes all you need to keep charging ahead and to reassure you that you really do belong in the leadership position you have chosen.

Kowalski (1995) conducted a study about superintendents with the help of the Council of Great City Schools, which is recognized as "the most prominent organization representing urban school districts in this country" (p. 5). In 1993, 17 of 29 superintendents in this organization agreed to participate in a study aimed at urban school superintendents and the study generated some interesting results. The data indicated that women found the politics of school boards and communities to be difficult and this played a role in their leaving their superintendency or the profession altogether.

Political skills are necessary for women to be successful in all upper-level administrative positions, not just the superintendency. I was very naive in such matters as a first-year principal in a rural district and learned some lessons the hard way. Several female superintendents with whom I have recently spoken stated that they did not have negative feelings about politics but, as one superintendent commented, "it is very hard to have seven different bosses," a reference to the fact that there are seven school board members in her district, each with their own agenda. This same superintendent was assigned a mentor the first year of her tenure by her professional organization and noted that not only her assigned mentor but also other superintendents she had worked with are only a phone call away with advice. Learning the political skills involved in successfully overseeing the operations of the public schools is important if women are to survive in positions of educational leadership.

> For centuries, mentoring has been used as a vehicle for handing down knowledge, maintaining culture, supporting talent, and serving future leadership... there has been a strong reproductive element attached to mentoring, well suited to societies relying on ritualized behavior to

protect the status quo (Darwin, 2000, p. 197).

The concept of mentoring has since changed. While mentors are needed to help pass on knowledge, wisdom, and experience, many administrators enter their new positions because organizations are looking for a change from the status quo. In other words, many of the mentors who enter your life will not be part of the organization in which you work. Rather, they will be part of the larger educational network. When considering who will serve as a mentor, it should be an individual that makes you feel comfortable and who believes and takes an interest in you. It should be someone who wants to help you realize your dream of leading with a servant's heart. The mentor's role is not to clone herself/himself. Rather, the mentor's role is to assist you in realizing your strengths and to reassure you in times when you doubt your leadership abilities.

In order for an emerging group, such as women, to find its place on the professional landscape of leadership, members need to bond and work together. In order to survive the demands and challenges society places on schools, women are being asked to lead school districts into a heightened era of high standards for accountability, safety matters, family issues, and societal concerns in general and one in which there are no previous pioneers. Although a few women leaders in the past opened the doors for today's women leaders, the issues facing our schools are more demanding than ever and today's women leaders are charting territory that has yet to be explored. Thus, today's women leaders will have to call upon their colleagues to help guide them in creating schools of the future; schools that are creative, collaborative, meaningful, diverse, and have a spirit that is passionate about securing the future for the children it educates.

The Face of Mentoring

There are all kinds of mentorship programs. States including Alabama, Georgia, Minnesota, and Ohio, require their school districts to provide mentoring programs for administrators and teachers. This requirement, however, raises a concern regarding whether trusting and caring relationships can be mandated. I am aware of districts that say they provide such programs to beginning teachers, yet they never really live the program. In order to create a mentoring culture, caring culture that allows one to grow and be actualized (Noddings, 1984), the mentee needs to be able to select who their mentor will be, as building a relationship is the key to successful mentoring.

There must be time to visit and talk with one another. In the hectic world of school leadership, there also must be time to reflect with the mentor on the school's progress. This talking and reflecting needs to be done episodically as well as longitudinally and can be accomplished through phone conversations, letter writing, school visits, and/or through email. There is no such thing as a formula for mentoring. Mentoring is what you make of the relationship you build with one person or with those in a professional learning community. It is all about the conversations and interactions you have with your mentor. Relationships are important to women in general and, in this case, effective professional relationships will ensure success.

Closing Remarks

Noddings (1992) envisions schools that are built on the idea that different people have different strengths and that these strengths should be nurtured in an environment of caring, not competition. The climate that women find today in school leadership is becoming more accepting of their strengths as leaders. In order to survive in the competitive world of educational leadership, women more than ever need to become a tight knit group of professionals that mentor one another into the ranks of the higher levels of school administration.

One of the profound aspects of mentoring is the quality of the caring relationships that are developed and nurtured over time other people. Zachary (2000) reminds us of Mary Piercy's poem *The Seven of Pentacles* (1982), which is a metaphor that describes what a healthy mentoring relationship looks like:

> During the "growing season" as we engage in mentoring, we bring our own cycle, our own timeline, our own history, our own individuality, and our own ways of doing things. For learning to occur, we must understand what we bring and what our mentoring partner [or professional learning community] bring to the relationship...We must make connections...so that mentoring is an enriching and satisfying experience (p. 165).

It is no secret that there are not many women in school leadership positions. Because school districts are increasingly being pressured to achieve exemplary performance on all measures of student success, school boards and communities are searching for innovative, caring, creative, collaborative people to assume campus and district leadership positions. Women can be confident that if they network and mentor one another, forming strong professional learning communities, they will assume those positions in the very near future. The class I attended in order to fulfill superintendency certification requirements had only women enrolled, five of us. Currently, six of the nine largest districts in the Houston metropolitan area have women superintendents or interim superintendents. The time is ripe for change.

As Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) state, "Mentoring is a means to a larger end: that of creating a strong, improvement oriented profession in schools [and] professional organizations" (p. 55). The window of opportunity has never been more open for women to assume leadership roles in schools and school districts. By mentoring one another, we can change the face of school leadership.

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Chapter 32

Women School Leaders: Lessons of Experience

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Joy C. Phillips

The results of this pilot study confirmed other findings that both female and male school leaders are concerned with relationships as well as tasks.

Since the early 1990s, there has been renewed national and state interest in the preparation of school leaders. National standards for school leaders emphasize instructional leadership, decisions in the best interest of students, and the ability of school leaders to involve all stakeholders in meaningful problem solving and planning to improve teaching and learning (NPBEA, 1995; Shipman & Murphy, 1996). School district leaders have continued to express concerns about the pool of talent that will be needed to lead their schools in the future. Professors of educational administration have redesigned preparation programs, with visible changes including new content and varied presentation strategies with an emphasis on problem-based learning (Daresh & Playko, 1997); stronger links to practice, including more substantive field experiences and internships (Cordeiro & Sloan-Smith, 1996; Clark & Clark, 1996; Glasman & Glasman, 1997; Murphy, 1999; NPBEA, 1995; Short & Price, 1992); and clearer roles for mentors (Crow & Matthews, 1998).

Improved preparation programs are not the only factor in the development of a different kind of school leader. The process is not complete with graduation and licensure, but must continue throughout a career. Job-embedded training (Daresh & Playko, 1997; Guskey, 2000; Wood & McQuarrie, 1999) and the roles of formal and informal mentors (Barnett, 1995; Crow & Matthews, 1998; Gooden, Carrigan, & Ashbaugh, 1999; Kraus & Cordeiro, 1995; Wood & Killian, 1998) are promising strategies for the continuing development of practicing school leaders, but important questions remain. What learning occurs on the job? How does learning continue after school leaders are formally prepared, credentialed, and employed?

With increasing numbers of females enrolled in school leadership preparation programs and hired in school leadership positions, there has also been growing interest in the relationship between gender and leadership style. The literature base has expanded from an early focus on great men to the exploration of differences in the gender, personality, and socialization of leaders. Rosener (1990) contrasted the interactive leadership style of women with the command-and-control leadership style of men, but she did not conclude how such differences originated. Contrary to the results of studies of sex role congruency, a meta-analysis of studies on leadership styles of men and women by Eagly and Johnson (1990) found both groups to be concerned with interpersonal relationships as well as task accomplishment. In a longitudinal study of leaders in various fields, Lougheed (2001) confirmed that "women and men were equally concerned with task and people considerations" (p. 186).

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As accountability systems focused on outcome measures make their way from K-12 schools to universities, there will be increased demands for programs in educational leadership to document their impact on the development of future leaders and the ability of their graduates, both women and men, to succeed in school leadership roles. The purpose of this pilot study was to explore experienced school leaders' reports of what they learned at different points in their professional careers and to compare the results with findings from similar studies of successful corporate executives.

Research Design and Methodology

A series of studies was conducted at the Center for Creative Leadership to determine how successful chief executive officers (CEOs) learned what they needed to know (McCall, 1997; McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988). The purpose of the research was to identify strategies for developing candidates for future leadership roles. In four separate studies of career events or episodes that "stood out" and led to "a lasting change in you as a manager" (p. 6), McCall, et. al found that CEOs' responses centered broadly around three themes. First, specific assignments that they were given had challenged them and led them to develop new areas of knowledge and skill that prepared them for future career advancements. Second, bosses, both good and bad, provided many examples of how things should and should not be done. Finally, successful CEOs were able to learn from mistakes, hardships, and disappointments.

This pilot study examined similar issues in education by posing three research questions: (1) How do experienced school leaders describe learning what they needed to know to be successful?, (2) How do the results compare to the results of the studies of McCall and his colleagues (1988, 1997)?, and (3) What, if any, differences were apparent between the responses of males and females?

The 12 participants were students enrolled in the Doctor of Education program at East Carolina University during the spring semester of 1996. They were at different stages in their doctoral programs, and they reported from 8 to 27 total years of experience in education, with a mean of 18.2 years. Four participants were male and eight were female. The average level of experience for female participants was 19 years, while male participants averaged 16.5 years of experience. Unfortunately, participants were not asked to specify how many of their years in education had been in school leadership positions.

A survey was constructed using the interview guide developed for the study of the development of CEOs (McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988, pp. 191-194). Questions focused on career events or episodes that led to a lasting change in their approach to leadership; other key events, including the role of other people; and general reflections about career, personal life, and the future. The survey was distributed to the participants during a regular class meeting.

The pilot study was limited in several ways. Participant data did not include the specific school leadership positions in which they had served, the length of time in each, or the quality of their performance. It was assumed that selection for a school leadership position and admission into the doctoral program were indicators of success.

There were also limitations of the survey methodology. The survey questions focused responses into certain themes and could have discouraged other responses. Although participants provided meaningful responses to the questions raised, there could have been additional important issues that participants were not asked to address. Furthermore, survey responses were self-reported perceptions of the participants. Although those perceptions were *real*, it was not possible to address the accuracy of those perceptions without additional data sources. Finally, without follow-up interviews or focus groups, the researchers were not able to probe responses for explanation, clarification, or elaboration.

Analysis of Data

Survey responses for all questions were combined and then organized by recurring themes, coded, and analyzed using the computer software program, HyperResearch (ResearchWare, 1999). Various reports were generated. However, at the time of this study, HyperResearch was found to be a *work in progress*, meaning the full capacity of the intended design has yet to be put into place. Therefore, use of this software required a combination of manual and electronic analysis strategies. The survey responses were labeled according to gender and years of experience in education. Each survey response was entered into a WORD file, and each respondent's file was saved separately. Additionally, each file was saved in both WORD format and TEXT format since HyperResearch will only import files in TEXT format. HyperResearch considered each of the 12 files a case. Because participants often provided multiple responses to the survey questions, a total of 190 responses were compiled and coded. The first level of analysis of the 190 responses yielded 98 unique codes. In subsequent levels of analysis, similar clusters of responses continued to be grouped together until, in the final level of analysis, this array of individual codes was reduced to five major categories of responses, or themes, and recurring sub themes within each.

Findings

The findings are reported in three steps. First, responses to the survey questions are briefly summarized. Next, the combined responses for all questions are reported by major themes. Finally, the responses of female and male participants are compared.

Responses to Survey Questions

When asked to describe key events that changed their approach to leadership, participants described challenges, mistakes and disappointments, and organizational events outside their control. Attending a professional development program and entering the doctoral program were opportunities for formal learning. Being involved in hiring, moving toward site-based management, rushing a student who had overdosed to the hospital, and dealing with students who were skipping school were examples of on the job learning that participants described. Unexpected transfers to new positions, new supervising principals, new superintendents, and the merger of school districts were major external changes that affected participants' approaches to leadership.

From "quick" decisions with unexpected negative results, participants reported learning to be more cautious. They also learned that it was important to recognize mistakes and fix them. For example, when one participant realized that a policy change was having unintended negative consequences, she discussed the policy with the principal and they made the necessary adjustments to correct the problem.

Many of the disappointments reported by the participants dealt with rumors among the faculty that were untrue, other leaders who couldn't be trusted, and superiors who did not act with integrity. In response, the participants reported that they worked to build more positive relationships, and they gained confidence from their successes. As they reflected on the disappointments they had experienced, they were able to smile at what they had learned from responding to the inappropriate behavior of students and adults, "learning that diesel fuel had been put in a gasoline powered bus," and missing a meeting when "I had not learned to live by a calendar."

Most participants mentioned individuals who had taught them the most. Many principals and superintendents were described as positive mentors, but one participant described the opposite kind of learning. "As ridiculous as it may sound, the very bad principal was the person who taught me most. I watched her systematically destroy people and I swore I would not let that happen when I became an administrator." Other participants mentioned a dad, a grandmother, and a friend with little formal education.

Participants had advice for younger leaders in the areas of tasks and relationships. One participant emphasized the importance of establishing credibility as a teacher. Another emphasized the need for a leader to be visible during the school day. "People do not need to hear about how much their leader has to do. They need to see you as their coach to get them through their 'headaches' or to cheer them along the way." They stressed teamwork, and they discussed the need to balance career and family.

Themes in Coded Responses

The 190 coded responses, which represent participants' responses for all of the survey questions combined, clustered around five major themes: Community and District Issues, Conflict, Continuing Education Leadership Functions, and Learning to Work with Families. When ranked by frequency of responses, Leadership Functions represented the most coded responses and Continuing Education was second. Conflict had the third highest number of responses followed by Community and District Issues, and Working with Families ranked fifth. Table 1 presents data for the five major themes and the sub themes that occurred most often.

Table 1
Themes and Selected Sub Themes Identified from Combined Survey Responses

Themes	First-level codes	Female		Male		Total
		#	%	#	%	#
Leadership functions		*34*	*56.7*	*26*	*43.3*	*60*
	Building effective relationships	5	62.5	3	37.5	8
	Teacher and staff evaluation	5	71.4	2	28.6	7
	Shared decision making	2	28.6	5	71.4	7
	Administrative turnover	4	100	0	0	4
	Disciplining staff	1	25	3	75	4
	Teacher selection	0	0	4	100	4
	Becoming a leader	2	66.7	1	33.3	3
	Follow through	1	33.3	2	66.7	3
	Other	14	70	6	30	20
Continuing education		*39*	*76.5*	*12*	*23.5*	*51*
	Lack of follow-through/mistakes	7	63.6	4	36.4	11
	Support from an effective mentor	6	66.7	3	33.3	9
	Positive feedback	5	71.4	2	28.6	7
	Other	21	87.5	3	12.5	24
Community and district		*21*	*61.8*	*13*	*38.2*	*34*
	Public "hot seat"	6	75	2	25	8
	Public embarrassment	4	66.7	2	33.3	6
	Proving self	2	40	3	60	5
	Undesirable transfer	2	50	2	50	4
	Other	7	63.6	4	36.4	11
Conflict		*22*	*64.7*	*12*	*35.3*	*34*
	Managing conflict	5	50	5	50	10
	Intervention in conflict	3	75	1	25	4
	Personal verbal attacks	3	75	1	25	4
	Other	11	68.8	5	31.3	16
Working with families		*6*	*54.5*	*5*	*45.5*	*11*
	Angry parents/family	3	50	3	50	6
	Other	3	60	2	40	5
	Total coded responses	**122**	**64.2**	**68**	**35.8**	**190**

Leadership Functions. Not surprisingly, many responses focused on experiences related to carrying out duties considered typical administrative functions. Two sub themes received high response rates in this category: Building effective relationships and shared decision making. Participants recognized the importance of "building a cooperative professional relationship" and "getting to know the staff and letting them get to know me." With respect to shared decision making, "teachers must have relevant information and be allowed to make decisions that administrators may not agree with. Then a common ground can be found to satisfy the needs of both." Another respondent recommended, "When a school is ready, 'let them loose' to lead! Wonderful ideas and programs are the result." Participants also recognized the importance of celebrating successes.

Community and District Issues. In this major theme, the most frequent responses related to the public "hot seat" and public embarrassment. "Behind-the-back" and untrue accusations, a supervisor who failed to keep a verbal commitment, reassignment to an undesirable position, reprimands for decisions that had been approved beforehand, learning that staff members could not be trusted, and dealing with an influential person in the community who was "stirring up trouble" were examples of challenging school, district, and community political situations that participants described.

Conflict. Within this theme, the most frequent responses addressed the need to manage conflict and the need to intervene. Participants reported examples of major conflicts involving students, faculty members, and parents. "Lost" children, violent student behavior, and harassment were examples of conflicts that required immediate action. Survey responses revealed that while managing conflict was time consuming, participants recognized the need to address the problem and the opportunity to learn valuable lessons. For example, one respondent observed, "We both learned to find the best in bad situations and to put aside our differences for the good of the school." In another conflict situation, a respondent "chose to respond openly and honestly to the criticism. I did not attack the critics. I invited them in to discuss their concerns. This helped to build more positive relationships eventually."

Working with Families. Another theme of the analysis related to learning to work with families. Although several types of relationships with parents were mentioned, "angry parents" were mentioned the most often in the surveys. For example, one participant noted a "conflict with a parent from the medical field who felt very differently about school issues, basically grouping, than I did."

Continuing Education. The survey responses revealed that participants were consciously aware of learning from a variety of experiences. In particular, lack of follow through and mistakes, effective mentors, and positive feedback were mentioned most often. Participants reported significant learning not only from professional mentors (teachers, principals, and superintendents), but from family members and friends as well. In particular, they noted the lasting value of positive recognition and praise.

Participants described instances where they failed to follow through and articulate what they learned from those experiences. One respondent explained that "not following up on a minor complaint became serious because the complaint was made by a student whose parent was very vocal." As a result, "I learned that potentially nothing is minor. It is important, however, to prioritize, but there is nothing wrong with telling someone that you will get back to them unless you don't." When a district supervisor failed to keep a verbal agreement, a respondent noted, "important issues should be kept in writing -- though it's important to remember that some things are better left unwritten." Another participant observed, "I need to make my own mistakes and learn from them. And I need to let others do the same."

Mentors were important. "The assistant principal at my first school always said she believed in me. She didn't tell me what to do, but listened, encouraged, was honest about what was right or wrong, and allowed me to try things that no one else had thought of.

When I succeeded, it made me believe in myself." Another participant remembered the impact when "the boss, whom I respected tremendously, praised my work."

Responses of Female and Male Participants

As shown in Table 1, female and male responses addressed all themes and all but one of the most frequently addressed sub themes. Generally, frequencies for the themes and sub themes were consistent with the gender breakdown of the participants, about two-thirds female and one-third male.

Four females, but no males, mentioned administrative turnover, while four males, but no females, addressed teacher and staff dismissals. Both women and men addressed developing and trusting employees, allowing them to make mistakes and learn from them, and serving as coaches. One male participant who had once been reassigned to an unpleasant assignment stated, "I attempt to make staff reassignments in a way that the individuals can see there are some benefits." A female participant observed, "The longer I am in the role, the more I recognize the importance of 'leading' based on the characteristics of the group." A male participant realized he would succeed as an administrator when he was "working closely with parents and seeing their burning desire to have a louder voice in the school."

Responses of female and male participants were more similar than different, and both genders were concerned about building positive relationships with faculty, students, and parents. They recognized the positive and negative results of involving others in planning and decision making, and they appreciated the need for faculty to receive information and training if those efforts were to be successful. Owens (1998) observed that feminist scholarship has "illuminated the appropriateness of transformational leader behavior in education organizations at a time when it was needed as never before to replace traditional command and control behavior" (p. 224). The results of this pilot study confirmed other findings (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Lougheed, 2001) that both female and male school leaders are concerned with relationships as well as tasks.

Conclusions

Just as successful CEOs learned what they needed to know from good and bad bosses, challenging assignments, and mistakes or failures (McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988; McCall, 1997), participants in this study reported that they learned valuable lessons from both positive and negative experiences. Questions that drew the most complete responses were those that asked participants to describe "key events that caused you to change your approach to leadership" and "your most frightening first -- something you did for the first time that really had you worried." In addition, responses often reflected the highly interpersonal, political, and sometimes volatile nature of schools. There were many examples of the unique communication challenges inherent in the school setting that involve students, faculty, staff, parents, community members, and/or other educators and professionals. Responses frequently described interpersonal conflict and safety issues.

The results of this pilot study confirm that this research approach can be useful in education as well as business settings. Continuing study of the "lessons of experience" of new and experienced school leaders has the potential to provide a foundation for improved preparation programs and on-the-job development. This research approach also has the potential to identify similarities and differences in the experiences of female and male school leaders.

Although successful school leaders responded in a meaningful way to the same questions used in studies of corporate leaders, their responses did not reveal whether there were other important factors in the development of school leaders that were not addressed in the survey questions. Interview and focus group protocols, beginning with open-ended questions, could be used to determine if there are key learning experiences for school leaders that are different from those reported by CEOs. An interview or focus group format would also allow the researchers to probe responses and gather more complete information regarding how participants' behaviors changed as the result of specific experiences.

The participants in this pilot study did not mention their initial preparation program, and only one of the twelve participants mentioned experiences in the doctoral program as a source of learning. Specific questions about preparation program components would provide additional information, but those prompts should not be used until participants have had opportunities to respond to more unstructured questions. If school leaders, like corporate CEOs, continue to value on-the-job experiences more than experiences in preparation programs, their message must be heard and addressed.

Participants in this study reported more negative experiences in the areas of interpersonal communication and conflict than in other areas. Strategies for developing the knowledge, skills, and dispositions required to build effective working relationships and manage conflict should be integrated across the curriculum of preparation programs and addressed throughout the professional development of school leaders.

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Chapter 33

Southeast Missouri Principal's Academy: A Model for School Districts and Universities To Develop Educational Leaders for the Future

Robert Buchanan

Women serving in leadership positions provide an excellent pool of potential principal candidates and as more and more women complete the SMPA program, these women campus leaders will provide a group of mentors for future Academy participants.

School districts in Missouri are feeling the effects of an exodus of campus administrators and, as a result, there is a need for school districts to attract and quickly train a pool of aspiring principals. These districts, however, do not need just anyone... they need individuals who have the skills to be successful educational leaders and the desire to remain principals throughout their careers.

Today's principals are faced with challenging and difficult situations. To better prepare future administrators, universities, professional associations, board of education organizations, and school districts must develop preparation programs that more realistically address the responsibilities encountered by the principal. Research indicates that the most effective programs implement role-playing, simulation activities, internships, and mentoring to encourage potential administrators to transfer theoretical knowledge to the practice of educational leadership (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000).

In 1997, the Southeast Missouri Principal's Academy (SMPA) was created by public schools in Southeast Missouri, Southeast Missouri State University, Southeast Missouri Superintendents Association, Southeast Missouri Elementary Principals Association, Southeast Missouri Secondary Principals Association, and the Southeast Regional Professional Development Center. The primary purpose of the SMPA is to identify and recruit from existing certified staff in Southeast Missouri schools potential principal candidates who possess the dispositions, knowledge, and performance skills identified by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) as being necessary for campus-level administrators. The ISLLC standards are as follows (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996):

Standard 1 - A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.

Standard 2 - A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.

Standard 3 - A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring the management of the organization, operations, and

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resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

Standard 4 - A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.

Standard 5 - A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.

Standard 6 - A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.

The SMPA also relies on the ISLLC standards in the planning, training, and implementation of a mentoring program for prospective principals. Selected principals who support and model the ISLLC standards are trained as mentors to provide experienced resource people to offer feedback and guidance for future educational leaders.

Selection and Preparation of Principal Candidates

Potential candidates for the SMPA are nominated by superintendents, campus-level administrators, and university professors and invited to submit an application for admission to the Principal's Academy. A total of thirty candidates are recommended each January for admission to the next fall's Academy. The preparation program for these future administrators begins with admission to the graduate educational administration program at Southeast Missouri State University (SEMSU). Upon admission, the SMPA schedules four in-service programs during the school year and culminates with a one-week program in June. Participants also attend during the school year programs sponsored by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education and the state and regional principals and superintendents associations in the following areas: curriculum, management, ethics, communication and collaboration, politics of education, and development of leadership skills.

Approximately 80% of all certified educators in the Southeast Missouri region are women, and women fill many of the leadership positions in school districts and professional associations. Many of these women currently serve as curriculum coordinators, department chairs, grade-level leaders, coaches, athletic directors, and supervisors. Women serving in these leadership positions provide an excellent pool of potential principal candidates and the SMPA encourages superintendents, principals, and college professors to evaluate these women's leadership skills and recruit them into the Academy. Further, as more and more women complete the SMPA program, these women campus leaders will provide a group of mentors for future Academy participants.

Selection and Training of Mentors

The SMPA recruits and selects mentors who are practicing principals or assistant principals in school districts in the Southeast Missouri region. Superintendents and SEMSU professors recommend prospective mentors. To be eligible, the mentors must (1) have successfully passed the state and national School Leader Licensure Assessment (SSLA); (2) provide active participation and leadership in national, state, or regional principals associations; and (3) contribute time and service to the regional professional center. Selected mentors complete an assessment to determine areas of expertise prior to being assigned as mentors. This assessment includes instructional management systems, public school law, performance-based teacher evaluation, special education, school business and facilities management, finance for the campus-level administrator, public relations, vocational education, administration of activity programs, professional development programs, school improvement planning, working with collective bargaining, and leadership. Mentors are designated as SEMSU adjunct faculty, which permits them to receive reduced tuition rates for graduate coursework and free admission to all university activities. The completion of one full year of service with SMPA as a mentor satisfies one of the professional service requirements for renewal of the Missouri principal's certificate.

An important component of the SMPA is the *Practicum in Educational Administration*, a SEMSU graduate class that provides prospective and practicing principals the opportunity to observe and interact with successful principals and assistant principals from other regions of the state and nation. Completion of the Practicum also meets an additional requirement for renewal of the administrative certificate. The Practicum addresses budgeting, student discipline, school safety, cooperating with local public safety departments, improving student achievement, writing a school improvement plan, performance-based teacher evaluations, co-curricular programs, and public school law.

Internships

By utilizing the internship experience, the SMPA can continue to integrate theory into practice prior to candidates actually being employed as assistant principals or principals, thus ensuring the success and survival of these new campus leaders. Perhaps the most compelling rationale for this requirement is that many students being trained as principals do not begin to think of themselves as principals until they arrive at the traditional capstone of the student experience -- the internship.

By introducing aspiring principals to practical administrative experiences well in advance of their last professional semester, universities and colleges have addressed the gap between being a student and serving campus leader. The internship experience for an aspiring principal is part of a teacher's transition from thinking like a teacher to thinking like an administrator.

A poorly supervised internship undermines the value of graduate course work. The successful internship should include the following:

1. The intern is assigned tasks that are useful and beneficial for a future administrator.
2. The intern is afforded opportunities to act as a leader.
3. The intern's skills are analyzed and developed to allow participation in a broad range of administrative and leadership experiences.
4. The intern is allowed sufficient time to complete the internship within a time frame that is congruent with their course work (usually 12 months).
5. The mentor/cooperating principal supports the knowledge, dispositions, and performance objectives as presented in the ISLLC standards.
6. The intern's schedule grants them sufficient time to learn the art and craft of being a competent and successful campus leader.

The list of practices that results in a valuable internship is extensive. Perhaps the most important characteristic of a positive internship experience is that the prospective principal is significantly involved in actual administrative and leadership activities. New principals are confronted with many challenges and learning opportunities. The likelihood of successfully meeting these challenges is increased, in part, by expansive and successful internship experiences that occur before being placed in the position of responsibility for the campus (Buchanan & Bell, 2000).

Summary

The superintendent is the educational leader for the school district and the community, while the principal fills this role for the school, with the educational welfare of his or her students as the top priority. The principal engages staff members in creating, implementing, and evaluating a vision for the campus that supports that of the district. The principal is the chief advocate for the school, constantly promoting and gaining support for its vision among faculty, students, parents, and the community. These skills must be transferred to aspiring principals if public schools are to continue to be successful.

Educational leaders are entrusted with overseeing the education of the next generation. Due to the critical nature of their task, the public demands that principals be held to the highest professional standards. For positive change to continue to occur in school systems, future educational leaders must have access to an on-going professional development program. To date, the SMPA continues to provide professional development for 120 prospective and employed principals in Southeast Missouri. Of these, 74 are women, with 48 of these women currently employed as campus-level administrators. It is critically important to provide all future and present campus leaders the support they need to acquire and strengthen the skills necessary to succeed as an educational leader in the 21st century.

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Chapter 34

Women Educational Administrators in Australia: Some Issues, Some Directions

Lisa Catherine Ehrich

No definite conclusions can be reached about the extent to which affirmative action and anti-discrimination legislation have enhanced women's position within educational administration. While some specific initiatives seem to have met with success in terms of providing opportunities for promotion, these initiatives have not been systemic.

This chapter outlines Australian anti-discrimination and equal opportunity or affirmative action legislation designed to alleviate women's subordinate status. Statistics worldwide continue to illustrate that women are underrepresented in top managerial positions, including positions in educational hierarchies. Reasons for their absence from such positions are identified and some directions that have been put forward by various agencies and researchers are reviewed. Some recent examples of affirmative action initiatives that have been implemented for women educators in Queensland, Australia are also provided. The paper concludes by raising a number of implications for future thinking about the position of women in educational administration.

The Position of Women in Management

It is well known that women throughout the world are under-represented in positions of management, generally (Adler & Izraeli, 1988), and educational administration and higher education, specifically (Limerick, 1991; Randall, 1994). For example, in terms of parliamentary representation, women represent just 20% of members of the Australian Federal Parliament and 19% of State parliament positions (Office of the Status of Women, 1997). It was not until 1986 that a woman became the first leader of a political party within the Federal Parliament in Australia. The public service in Queensland has had only four women hold the position of director general of a government department and two of these appointments were made since July 1998 (Clark, 1999). Thus, of the 18 departments in the public service in Queensland, women make up 22% of the directors general (Clark, 1999).

Women's underrepresentation in key leadership positions has also been noted in the business sector. For example, women represent less than 8% of company director positions (Halliday, 1998). In terms of management positions across Australia, Poiner (1996) noted that women occupy 15% of senior management positions, 24% in middle management, and 35% in junior management. These figures seem to indicate the existence of a glass ceiling for women who wish to move beyond senior management.

The situation in Australian universities is similar, as very few women hold high status positions (Burton, 1998; QUT, 1996). Women hold 13% of positions above senior lecturer; 24% of positions at senior lecturer; 42% of positions at lecturer level; and 52% of those below lecturer level (Burton, 1998). As the statistics show, fewer women are found in the more senior positions.

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Women are also underrepresented in school executive positions, which are described as those persons undertaking functions of a senior administrative nature broader than that of a secondary principal and whose salary exceeds that of a secondary principal (ABS, 2000a). Furthermore, executive staff is said to include directors general (or their equivalent), directors and their deputies, and inspectors/superintendents (ABS, 2000a). In 1990, females made up 20% of the total executive staff in Australian government schools (Australian Bureau of Statistics [ABS], 1990). By 2000, this figure had risen to 32.5% (ABS, 2000a). The profile of executive staff in Queensland government schools also improved significantly over this period, with females comprising 9% of total executive staff in 1990 (ABS, 1990) and 22.5% in 2000 (ABS, 2000a). Women make up 66% of the teaching force in all schools in Australia (ABS, 2000b) and 68% of teachers in Queensland government schools (ABS, 2000b), yet the percentage of women in the principalship in Queensland government schools is below 30% (Department of Education, 1998). Put another way, two-thirds of the teaching staff are women, yet less than one-third fill the position of either principal or executive staff member. A closer look at the breakdown of men and women teachers reveals that men tend to be found in the more prestigious areas -- such as teaching older students and teaching subjects such as technology, agriculture, and science -- while women are more likely to be found teaching younger children, English as a second language, and foreign languages. Women also make up the overwhelming majority (91%) of teacher aides and clerical staff in Australian schools (ABS, 2000c). Thus, within the support staff, teaching force, and school leadership, there is evidence of gender segmentation.

Barriers

Some well-known barriers to women's participation in management have been cited in the literature and are stated below:

- sexist and sex-role assumptions and attitudes regarding women administrators' ability and competence to perform the role (Chapman, 1986; Dunshea, 1998; Funk, 1986; Patterson, 1994; Shakeshaft, 1987);
- the masculine culture of educational institutions, such as schools and universities (Blackmore, 1989; Burton, 1987, 1998; Limerick, 1991; Sinclair, 1998; Tancred-Sheriff in Randall, 1994);
- women's reluctance to apply for promotion (Chapman, 1986; Randall, 1994; Sampson, 1987);
- lack of adequate childcare (Scutt, 1990);
- dual role of performing unpaid work in the home, rearing children, and working in the workplace (Davies, 1994);
- lack of traditional mentoring opportunities for women (Byrne, 1991; Dodgson, 1986; Marshall, 1985; Randall, 1994; Sampson, 1987;);
- lack of access to socialisation processes, which limits women from aspiring to leadership positions (Jacobs, 1994; Nicoll, 1992;);
- separate promotion routes for teaching and educational administration, which are two distinct professional roles, (Nicoll, 1992; Patterson, 1994);
- promotion by merit is not a neutral concept but based on the values of the dominant group in the organisation, which is typically men (Burton, 1987, 1988, 1998; Wilenski in Randall, 1994); and
- the glass ceiling originally described by Morrison, White, and van Velsor (1987) includes a cluster of barriers: a lack of role models and mentors, lack of support from senior executives, increased competition, and competing career and family roles.

Solutions

It is important to underscore the point that not all feminist writers have advocated similar solutions for redressing barriers facing women in education and in other spheres of life. A simple categorisation of two important feminist perspectives is those from liberal and radical positions. Liberal feminist solutions to women's underrepresentation have focused on redressing discrimination through avenues such as affirmative action policies and practices, more accessible mentoring and socialisation processes, and a range of training opportunities and/or courses. In contrast, radical feminists contend that more basic solutions are needed rather than simply revising current political, legal, and educational policies and practices. For example, Blackmore (1989) argues that the concept of leadership needs to be re-examined in order to transform its current "masculinist" bias, which emphasises control, hierarchy, and individualism (p. 123). Her vision is a feminist alternative view of leadership that focuses on the relationships between individuals and a more egalitarian notion of community so that caring and concern for others is given priority. Other writers (e.g. Burton, 1987; Korac-Kakabadse & Kouzmin, 1997; Sinclair, 1998) have argued along similar lines and called for cultural change in organisational structures to prevent further marginalisation of women.

Legislative Framework

A number of statutes have been enacted in Australia over the last 15 years dealing with issues of discrimination on the grounds of sex. Commonwealth (Cth) or Federal Acts include the Sex Discrimination Act 1984 (Cth) and Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Act 1999 (Cth), while two Queensland (Qld) or State acts include the Anti-Discrimination Act 1991 (Qld) and Equal Opportunity in Public Employment Act 1992 (Qld).

In Australia, equal opportunity or affirmative action values the notion of merit; it does not, in any way, discriminate in favour of women nor do any of the Acts subscribe to the use of quotas, which can result in the devaluation of qualifications and experience (Kramer, 1993). The stance adopted by Australia's affirmative action legislation has been away from more extreme forms of intervention. For this reason, affirmative action in Australia has not fuelled the same degree of resentment and hostility as that experienced in the United States. In short, affirmative action is not the explosive issue in Australia that it is in the United States (see for example, Mills, 1994).

A brief description of the anti-discrimination legislation (Commonwealth and State) and the equal opportunity or affirmative action acts (Commonwealth and State) is now provided.

Commonwealth and State Anti-Discrimination Legislation

Anti-discrimination laws in the six Australian States and two Territories share a broadly similar legislative scheme with the Federal Sex Discrimination Act 1984 (Hunter, 1992, p. 31). A notable difference between the federal Act and the Queensland Anti-Discrimination Act 1991 is that the former prohibits discrimination on the basis of the attributes of sex, marital status, and pregnancy, while the latter includes these plus other attributes such as parental status, breastfeeding, age, race, impairment, religion, political belief or activity, trade union activity, lawful sexual activity, and association with or relation to a person identified on the basis of any of the above attributes (Anti-Discrimination Act 1991 [Qld], §§6-7).

The provisions of both the federal and Queensland acts were based on the 1979 United Nations Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). The CEDAW condemned all forms of discrimination against women as a violation of their basic human rights and freedoms (CEDAW in Office of the Status of Women, 1986). The thrust of anti-discrimination legislation is that sexual harassment and sex-based discrimination in employment, education, and a number of others areas are prohibited. A Federal Commission (known as the Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission) and State body (known as the Anti-Discrimination Commission, Queensland) listen to and investigate complaints of unlawful discrimination and attempt to resolve the problems through conciliatory means. In Queensland, for example, if conciliation does not resolve the complaint, the matter can be referred to an Anti-Discrimination Tribunal that conducts public hearings and can make specific orders such as those made by a court, including costs (Anti-Discrimination Commission of Queensland, 2001).

Equal Employment Opportunity or Affirmative Action Legislation

Commonwealth legislation. An important Commonwealth Act introduced in the mid 1980s was the Equal Employment Opportunity for Women Act (Cth) (1986). (The act was revised in 1999 and renamed the Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Act). This act makes provision for affirmative action programs for women in private sector organisations as well as community organisations, non-government schools, group training, and higher education institutions with more than 100 employees. There is no one specific Commonwealth act which covers women in the public sector in Australia; rather, all Commonwealth public sector legislation since the 1980s has made provisions for affirmative action programs for women as well as members of other target groups, such as Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders, people from non-English speaking backgrounds, and people with disabilities (Ronalds 1988). Most States in Australia have their own equal employment opportunity legislation covering the public sector. For example, Queensland's Equal Opportunity in Public Employment Act 1992 (Qld) is discussed later in the following section.

Equal employment opportunity legislation coming from the Commonwealth was introduced to complement the Sex Discrimination Act (1984), since it was felt that anti-discrimination legislation on its own is not sufficient to improve women's position. Unlike anti-discrimination legislation, which prohibits employers from discriminating against women (Hunter, 1992), affirmative action or equal opportunity involves devising measures for organisations to use to eradicate discrimination. For example, affirmative action programs address such issues as training and development, recruitment and promotion, sexual harassment, and pay equity. A key difference between anti-discrimination legislation and affirmative action legislation is that the former tends to be complaint based or reactionary, while the latter is more proactive since it requires employers to identify and implement appropriate strategies to improve women's opportunities (Ronalds, 1988).

State legislation. In Queensland, the Equal Opportunity in Public Employment Act 1992 (Qld) requires all public sector organisations, including government and state school systems, to prepare and implement equal employment opportunity management plans and annually report on those plans to the Commissioner for Public Sector Equity. Two key objectives of the Act are (1) that members of target groups (e.g. women, Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders, people from non-English speaking backgrounds, and people with disabilities) are able to compete for recruitment, selection, and promotion and pursue careers as effectively as those not in target groups; and (2) that unlawful discrimination is eliminated. Unlike the Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Act (Cth) whose key target group is women, the Equal Opportunity in Public Employment Act (1992) along with other Commonwealth public sector legislation covers not only women but also members of other target groups.

A Closer Look at Two Solutions: Affirmative Action or Equal Opportunity for Women

There seems to be consensus in the literature that affirmative action legislation in Australia covering both the private and public spheres has resulted in gains for women at a number of levels since its implementation (Poiner, 1996). Two obvious examples are the introduction of childcare and increased participation of women in the workplace, from 49% in 1988 to 54% in 1998 (Affirmative Action Agency, 1999). However, the precise extent to which the legislation has improved the position of women is more difficult to determine for many reasons. Poiner and Willis (1991) state that it is very difficult to isolate equal opportunity/affirmative programs from general movements (such as the women's movement) that have occurred in society. Are the gains due to the legislation or can they be attributed to women themselves or to other measures outside workplace policies? Specifically, can it be argued that the increase of women in the principalship in Queensland government schools (i.e. women constituted 10% of the principalship in 1992 and 29% of the principalship in 1997) is due to the implementation of the Equal Opportunity in Public Employment Act 1992 (Qld) or have there been other factors affecting these women educators' lives and experiences? While the quantitative data shows positive trends for women, it cannot reveal the quality or nature of the experiences underlying the trends. As Poiner and Willis state, "numbers can tell you something about how many but they cannot tell you how" (p.53). Without more qualitative data, it is virtually impossible to answer the question of the extent of the effectiveness of affirmative action legislation. To date, there has been very little empirical research investigating the impact of affirmative action legislation on the proposed beneficiaries of the legislation (Sheridan, 1996).

In 1992, the Queensland Department of Education produced its inaugural Equal Employment Opportunity Management Plan 1992-1993, which was developed within the framework of the Equal Opportunity in Public Employment Act 1992 (Qld). At that time, the Department of Education established an Equity Directorate to oversee the development of policies and provide strategic advice in the area of equal employment opportunity and social justice. A series of restructurings to the Department saw the Equity Directorate abolished and subsumed within the Division of Human Resources. More recent restructurings have signalled a move to place greater responsibility for planning and implementing affirmative action issues in each of the regions within the State and within the schools. Principals now play a greater role in planning equal employment opportunity strategies and they demonstrate their commitment to the strategies via the school development plans, which are the schools' accountability documents. As one regional director of education has commented, the emphasis principals and regional directors place upon affirmative action largely depends upon their personal commitment to it and whether it is seen as a priority. While there are principals and regional directors who are committed to affirmative action and are actively involved in promoting women's careers via their individual support, career advice, encouragement, apprenticeship, and other work-oriented learning opportunities, other officers choose not to make it such a high profile issue.

There is no doubt that there are many competing issues occupying the efforts of school managers today, including increasing competition from private schools, improving student performance and student learning outcomes, and the adoption of information management and information technology (Education Queensland Strategic Plan 1998-2002). By the same token, "fair and equitable practices" for students and staff alike continue to be rated as a key policy issue (Education Queensland Strategic Plan 1998-2002).

Mentorship for Women

Over the last twenty years, a considerable body of literature has revealed that access to a mentor -- typically an older and experienced career professional -- is a prerequisite for both men and women's success in organisations. Traditional mentorship, as a source of patronage, has been around for thousands of years. Byrne (1991) explains that traditional mentorship is based on a self-selecting, invisible, and idiosyncratic process that has been historically male dominated. The literature seems to suggest that when compared to males, females continue to have difficulties accessing mentors in all types of work settings, including academe (Bogat & Redner, 1985; Byrne, 1989), managerial settings (Kanter, 1977), and educational administration (Chapman, 1986; Clarke, 1985; Marshall, 1985; Sampson, 1987). For example, in Schmuck's (1975) American study, women administrators felt they had been denied crucial informal processes of socialisation because of their sex. Clarke (1985) reached a similar conclusion in relation to women teachers in Queensland government schools who had been filtered out of knowledge sharing sessions in informal settings such as clubs, pubs, and old-boy associations. It appears that opportunities for women to access mentors is reduced due to the socialisation process (Clarke, 1985; Kanter, 1977; Schmuck, 1975), problems associated with cross-gender dyads (Ragins & McFarlin, 1989), lifestyle factors such as responsibilities for children and others (Daws, 1995), and sexism and sex-role stereotyping (Ehrich, 1995).

Since the early 1970s, more formal types of mentorship programs have been introduced into private and public sector organisations in the United States because of the advantages realized by both the mentor and protégé (or mentee). For example, Douglas (1997) summarises the advantages for the mentee as career advancement, personal support, learning and development, increased confidence, and assistance and feedback with tasks, while the advantages for the mentor include personal fulfilment, assistance on projects, financial rewards, increased confidence, and revitalised interest in work. Based on these and other perceived benefits, mentoring programs have become a key part of human resource development policies in organisations in the United States.

Similar programs made their way into Australian organisations by the 1980s (Cameron & Jesser, 1990). It appears that traditional mentorship continues to be dominant within the school sector in Australia, although more formalised programs for women educators have been advocated here for some years (e.g. Byrne 1991; Ehrich, 1994a, 1995). Particular types of formal mentor programs have already begun to be introduced for men and women leaders of schools in other parts of the world such as Singapore (Stott & Walker, 1992) and the United States (Daresh & Playko, 1992). In Australia, attempts at developing mentoring schemes for women and/or others within education have been, at best, ad hoc. However, over the last decade numerous interesting projects have been developed to assist women educators aspiring to or involved in leadership positions. Some of these are highlighted below as illustrations of affirmative action initiatives. The first three are affirmative action strategies provided by Education Queensland (formerly known as the Department of Education), and the final three are examples of affirmative action programs that were provided by other entities.

On-Site Leadership Program for Indigenous Women

A targeted group within the Equal Employment in Public Employment Act 1992 (Qld) is Australia's indigenous people, known as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders. To date, there are very few indigenous women teachers and even fewer indigenous women administrators. For example, in 1995, there were 191 Aboriginal and Torres Strait islander teachers, three principals, and two acting principals across the state of Queensland (Brennan & Crawford, 1996). The On-Site Leadership Program was a 1995 initiative of Education Queensland for indigenous women in the Capricornia region in

Queensland in recognition of the particular difficulties faced by this group of women. The program was a subset of a larger work-shadowing program for women teachers and principals in the Capricornia region. The program enabled four indigenous women and one South Sea Islander woman to undertake training as school principals by being placed for a term with a mentor principal. While the program consisted of a series of training and support sessions, meetings, and teleconferences, much of the women's learning occurred alongside their mentors. Each of the women left their existing jobs while they acted as co-workers in more senior positions. Identifying mentors for each of the women was not an easy task as mentors had to be excellent practitioners with a commitment to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students and staff. An evaluation of the program suggested that it was a successful and rich learning experience both for the mentees and the mentors. One outcome of the program was that four of the women were offered acting positions for a term following this experience in order to consolidate and share their learning (Brennan & Crawford, 1996).

Remote Teacher Education Program for Indigenous Teachers

This program was devised in 1995 by Education Queensland as a way of encouraging greater numbers of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander teachers -- both men and women -- to consider careers in school leadership. The program enabled teachers in the Cape or Torres Strait region to act in the position of principal or associate administrator (i.e. deputy principal and department head) while receiving ongoing professional development and support. Elements of the leadership program included regular support and visits by senior regional officers to provide assistance; regular opportunities for the aspiring leaders to network; work-shadowing opportunities for some of the women; workshops provided by staff at James Cook University (Queensland's northern university); and personal study via university courses, which formed the final component of the program. Early evidence shows that the program has met with considerable success, particularly in terms of the increased numbers of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander principals. For example, the number of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander principals had grown from one in 1995 to thirteen by 1997 (Clark, 1999).

Program for Women Principals in Rural Areas

An intervention begun in 1999 emerged from a group of district directors who observed that women principals seem to face unique difficulties, including isolation, pressures from working in conservative communities, a lack of peer support, and limited experience in working with staff. On the basis of their informal analysis, the directors devised and implemented a program that provides work-shadowing opportunities for women principals in the rural areas of Townsville, Roma, and Ipswich. The program has given these women access to more experienced and suitable leaders from whom to learn. Clark (1999), who described the project, stated that one of its goals was to encourage the development of a mentoring relationship between the experienced leaders and the women principals. To date, it is not known if this goal has been attained, as the results of the project have not yet been published.

A Mentoring Program for Women Educators

In 1994, the Association of Women Educators, a Queensland-based national professional association committed to the full participation of women and girls in education, established a mentoring scheme for its members as a way of enabling them to share their collective experience and expertise. The Association has operated weekend residential programs, which have provided initial training and support for women interested in being mentored and mentoring others (Redress, 1994).

Literacy Training for Teacher Aides

A frequently overlooked and undervalued group of employees in schools are teacher aides. As school support officers, teacher aides are the least paid and have few career path options, little access to training, and inadequate articulation of the work they do, yet they are an untapped teaching resource (National Board of Employment, Education and Training, 1994). Not only do they assist teachers by preparing resources and other teaching materials for students, they also provide individual and group instruction in classroom settings.

In 1998, the Association of Women Educators, in conjunction with the Australia Centre for Work Education, funded cohorts of women teacher aides to complete the nationally accredited competency-based Certificate III in Education in the language and literacy stream. To fulfil the requirements of the certificate, participants complete a series of core modules, attend several days of training, participate in on-site observations, and complete detailed workbooks (Troe, 1998). Negotiations with Queensland University of Technology have resulted in an agreement that completion of the course translates into credit for one unit in the first semester for participants wishing to pursue careers as teachers.

Women-Only Courses

In recent times, women-only education has been offered as an alternative for women in a range of situations. For example, women only courses are sometimes provided for women who are returning to the workforce after a long absence. These special programs are offered through Technical and Further Education institutes to provide work-based skills for women. In addition, there have been a number of women-only courses for women in management who are beginning their careers, those at mid-level, and those in senior levels of management. On the surface, such courses seem to be discriminatory, but under the Sex Discrimination Act 1984 (Cth), they are described as "special measures" and, therefore, are acceptable since they are "designed to bring a disadvantaged group to a position of equality" (Leon, 1993, p. 89). A variety of organisations ranging from the public and private sectors to professional associations to universities have operated women-only courses for women interested in management over the last ten years in Australia.

In 1989, staff from Brisbane College of Advanced Education (now called Queensland University of Technology [QUT]) conducted baseline research to investigate the number and types of available courses in the area of women in management across the eastern seaboard of Australia. The outcome was a report, The Dilemma of Management Programs for Women (Ehrich & Limerick, 1989). One of the recommendations of the report was that QUT develop and teach a women in management course aimed at women who are or are about to become mid-level managers in a variety of fields, such as education, the professions, the corporate world, and the public sector. The course, which has been taught at QUT for some seven years now, has had considerable success in terms of both its positive evaluations from participants as well as the number of women who attended the course and then gained promotions.

Evaluations have demonstrated that the six-day intensive course had positive outcomes, including providing women with an opportunity to share and present ideas with other women; providing a number of role models for women; helping to develop women's networking skills; increasing participants' sense of confidence and ability; and enabling women to consider and explore alternative leadership styles (Limerick, Heywood, & Ehrich, 1995). After the course had been operating for three years, a survey was sent to all of the participants to see if they had achieved any success in terms of promotion. Approximately one-third of the participants out of a pool of 70 claimed that they had attained significant promotions and pay raises (Limerick, et al., 1995). The experience of the women-only course demonstrates that such courses are an important strategy for assisting women who wish to develop skills, abilities, and confidence in the domain of leadership.

Implications for the Future

This discussion has drawn attention to some examples of liberal feminist solutions that have been advocated for redressing the difficulties that women face in the workplace. As stated previously, however, no definite conclusions can be reached about the extent to which affirmative action and anti-discrimination legislation have enhanced women's position within educational administration. Similarly, it also becomes very difficult to claim that specific affirmative action strategies and initiatives have improved the position of women. While some specific affirmative action initiatives such as the leadership programs for indigenous educators and the women only course run by QUT seem to have met with success in terms of providing opportunities for promotion, these initiatives have not been systemic. Furthermore, qualitative data are required to determine the extent of the effectiveness of such initiatives for the women concerned. What follows are some implications for future thinking about improving women's position in educational administration.

The Potential of Current Organisational Structures

Educational systems have been restructured nationally and internationally over the last decade. This has been evidenced by the shift from centralised to decentralised policies where principals, in concert with their staffs and communities, are now more responsible for the day-to-day operation of schools. Such a decentralised model of school leadership has considerable potential for developing democratic processes for decision making, and for encouraging facilitative and shared leadership.

An important implication of the shift to school-based management for women who are already in the principalship is that they need to examine their own positions and practices and identify strategies to be more inclusive and democratic in their interactions with staff, students, and community members (Blackmore, 1995). More inclusive and democratic practices are in keeping with a feminist view of leadership since such a view is concerned with egalitarian notions of community and social justice (Blackmore, 1989; Grundy, 1993).

Mentorship Programs within School-Based Management

Professional and formal types of mentorship have been recommended as career enhancement strategies to assist women. The evidence provided by the research (Daresh & Playko, 1992; Klauss, 1981; Stott & Walker, 1992) has shown that more formalised mentorship schemes have considerable scope to assist those beginning or interested in careers in a variety of contexts. To date, only short term, ad hoc mentoring programs have been implemented for women and men in particular regions within Queensland.

Now that schools have embraced school-based management processes and practices, the best chance of implementing a more formal mentoring program lies in the hands of principals and regional directors. Such a program could develop through the involvement of a cluster of schools within a locality. Zey's (1985) seven-stage approach to implementing a program provides an important starting point. University personnel and regional directors could provide support during the planning, implementing, and evaluating stages.

Networking Strategies

In the 1970s, women used consciousness-raising circles as an important strategy in helping them identify their common experiences and understandings about being women (Tuttle, 1987). In recent times, women-only occasions where women identify and share issues of concern have become widely accepted and practised across the public sector, trade union movement, and various educational settings (Ramsay, 1995). Women's networks and women's professional associations, such as the Association of Women Educators, have been seen as forums for women to share information and discuss pertinent professional and career issues affecting their position in society. The latter has played a particularly proactive role in assisting women educators in Queensland.

Ramsay (1995) maintains that women at senior levels within their organisations have much to gain by establishing small groups/networks where they can communicate with each other and come to some shared understandings about their experiences. She cautions, however, that these groups should not be a type of personal therapy, but an opportunity for "collective theorising" (pp. 182-183), which would empower women with a range of strategies to challenge and change discriminatory practices at an individual and/or organisational level. It seems that women at all levels within the education system could benefit by belonging to women-only groups or networks within and outside their organisations, as well as more mainstream networks within their local communities (Ehrich, 1994b).

Educating The School Community

Long-term and lasting progress is unlikely to be made until there is greater awareness and understanding of the barriers impeding women's career progression. For this reason, it is important that affirmative action/equal opportunity initiatives are placed firmly on the education profession's agenda. School leaders can make a significant contribution to improving the working conditions of women staff at all levels by incorporating affirmative action policies and practices into the day-to-day management of schools. It is important that strategies are implemented in the true spirit in which they are intended. In other words, underpinning these programs should be a genuine belief in and real commitment to enhancing women's career options and leadership skills.

A Culture that Supports Women's Experiences

A number of writers have commented on the gendered nature of organisations (Burton, 1997, 1988, 1998; Korac-Kakabadse & Kouzmin, 1997), including schools (Limerick, 1991; Blackmore, 1995). In short, these writers maintain that organisations have inherited historical masculinist assumptions and practices that continue to act as barriers against women. Marshall and Rusch (1995) refer to these masculinist assumptions as "gender filters" (p.79) that operate within the professional culture and function to maintain the privilege of the dominant white male culture.

According to Marshall and Rusch (1995), when female deputy principals find themselves being socialised into masculinist organisations, it creates many dilemmas and challenges for them. They recommend that women construct new assumptive worlds and their suggestions to "remake policy democratically" (p.91) and "build team trust around shared values" (p.91) are in line with suggestions proposed by Blackmore (1989, 1995) and Grundy (1993).

One way in which we can begin to build cultures that value women's experiences is through whole school policies which support the elimination of sexual harassment, sexist language, and sexist assumptions from practices and policies. Whole school policies that are more inclusive and tolerant of diversity and differences are those that send important messages to women and minority groups within the school. Within these new cultures, the development of productive working relationships amongst men and women, indigenous and non-indigenous people, and girls and boys will no doubt help to create open, caring, and respectful interchanges amongst all members of the school community.

Alliances between Women and Other Groups

It appears that anti-discrimination laws have played an important educative role in the community as demonstrated by the way social attitudes have changed toward women and other groups. Thornton (1990) argues that the current laws have considerable propensity to bring about further change and provide space for women and others "to give substance to that framework" (p. 262). She envisions that if long-term strategic coalitions were formed amongst women, radical activists, and others, the power of superordinates to influence societal norms could be challenged and addressed. Such a political force could bring about wide-scale changes.

It seems counter-productive to discount certain solutions because they are liberal or radical. There is much to be gained from collective action and from employing a range of strategies for women at all levels. Alliances between women and pro-feminist men can also be a powerful force for challenging current practices of systemic discrimination (Lingard & Limerick, 1995).

More Extensive Research is Required

If we are to continue to deploy a range of strategies to assist women educators in overcoming the barriers they face as they move into leadership positions, then we need to call upon a variety of data-gathering techniques. Since statistical data are limited in providing an insight into women's experiences in organisations, qualitative data collection techniques must be used to shed light upon the effectiveness of particular types of affirmative action strategies. While some qualitative research is beginning to emerge which reveals the challenges facing women principals (Dunshea, 1998; Marshall & Rusch, 1995), more research is required which examines women's experiences, their challenges, and potentialities.

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Chapter 35

Weaver of a Leader

Jaimie Smith

Dedicated to Brenda Allen

The weaver of a leader
Sees leadership from afar,
And vows commitment
To braid together the skills
Of the innocent beginner.

The weaver of a leader
Guides the apprentice
In and out of each endeavor
Down the road of success
With patience and inspirational knowledge.

The weaver of a leader
Influences the novice
And strengthens the promise,
Threading words of encouragement,
Blessing and praise.

The weaver of a leader
Steps back to behold
With admiration and honor
A heart-warming tapestry of leadership
Woven with friendship and respect.

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Chapter 36

Keeping Our Plates Aloft: A Reflection on Women and Work

Marla McGhee

As I visit students in the field, I try never to lose sight of the whole person. But I am particularly cognizant of the importance of addressing the multiple dimensions of life with my female students.

Do you remember the plate spinner on the Ed Sullivan Show? That guy was amazing. Just as he got all the plates whirling, he'd dash to the end and begin again to work his magic, keeping all the spinning disks aloft, dancing on the ends of thin wooden rods. That's how I characterized my hectic life as a principal, wife, mother, and homemaker. Women leaders' lives are often that way. Just when things are cooking at school and all facets of professional life are clicking, there's a sick child, or an elderly parent who needs care, or a loved one who wants to relocate, or alter a stagnant career path. For working women, learning to juggle and multitask is simply a way of life.

Working now as a professor preparing future school leaders, one of my great joys is developing relationships with graduate students. I particularly enjoy field-based situations. Visiting the natural educator habitat, among students, staff, and teachers is a fascinating way to observe applications of our classroom assignments and textbook studies.

Upon honest reflection, I'll have to admit I work differently with my female students than I do my male students. It's not that I'm any less rigorous in my expectations. As a matter of fact, it's quite the contrary. I expect more of them. You see, in order for a woman to be truly successful in the many facets of her life, that's precisely what she must do -- more. And women are well suited to handle just such a demanding set of expectations. They have a knack for successfully integrating personal capacities and skills with the rigors of a demanding work place.

A number of years ago, as a long school year wound to a close, I chatted with a peer over a cup of coffee. She described her ups and downs then turned to me and asked how my year had been. I boasted that my family had clean clothes to wear every week of the school year, so, clearly, my year had been a grand success. Integrating my personal and professional thinking came naturally. And often, this natural blending of skills served me well.

I recall needing to have a difficult talk with a member of the teaching faculty. Our male assistant principal accompanied me to the teacher's classroom for the conversation. I began by asking about her daughter, who had recently suffered an asthma attack so serious it required a late-night emergency room visit. This event had consumed her attention for days and I knew that launching into a professional conversation without mentioning her child would have been counterproductive to our interaction. This was not a manipulative act, but rather a way to show concern for the teacher in light of her multiple roles as an educator and a single parent. It was clear she was struggling to keep her plates in the air. In a debriefing session later, the assistant principal remarked that he had no idea

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where I was going when the conversation began. He didn't understand why it was necessary to mention her daughter when I was there to talk about a work-related issue. I wouldn't have considered approaching the teacher any other way. As a matter of fact, I hadn't given it much thought. I just did it.

Just as there are advantages to this seamless and complementary blending, clearly there are downsides. The lines of demarcation between personal and professional worlds can become blurred and challenging to define. Emotional demands and rigors of one arena can bleed over into the other causing unhealthy behaviors, unrealistic schedules, and unpleasant interactions. Relationships sometimes fail. Women seek therapy and/or medication to deal with the demands of complex lives. Yes, plates shatter when they come crashing to the floor.

As I visit students in the field, I try never to lose sight of the whole person. But I am particularly cognizant of the importance of addressing the multiple dimensions of life with my female students. Instructional leadership, professional development, campus improvement planning and budgeting -- it's all part of the discussion. But, balancing the workplace with other facets of life is also central to our discourse. Often these conversations occur in an office or classroom where we are flanked by photos of loved ones, prized pets, or favorite vacation spots. The plates are in plain sight, a reminder of myriad interests and responsibilities beyond the schoolhouse walls. Addressing the human side of her world, I may ask:

- *Health* -- How are you taking care of yourself? What are you doing to maintain a routine of exercise and appropriate diet? What about recreation and relaxation? What hobbies are you pursuing? What's on the bedside bookstand that is not a journal or text?
- *Home* -- How are you managing the demands of your household? What strategies are working for you and why? Are there others who can help to maintain the home?
- *Family* -- How are you scheduling time with loved ones? Are you making time for those outside your world of work? How are you focusing on the children in your family?

Nurturing women leaders as they navigate the rapid waters of the workplace is crucial. Equally critical, though, is making certain that health, home, and family receive focused, substantive attention. Women are uniquely qualified to successfully lead in professional organizations while maintaining healthy households, flourishing families, and powerful partnerships. They can and do spin plates with extraordinary finesse and skill.

Chapter 37

Diana Lam: A Cinderella Story

Carole Funk

This mentorship to young girls and women allows Diana to pass the torch, continuing the legacy of strong-minded women who will then help others achieve their dreams.

This is a Cinderella story... not quite, but almost, a fairy tale. It is a true story about a little girl who made her dreams come true. The little girl's name in our story is Diana. She is and has always been an American but was born in the country called Peru on the continent of South America. Our Cinderella, Diana, did not have a wicked stepmother, but her mother was very poor and lived in a tattered step-village within an overgrown jungle in Peru. Her mother was only 16 years old and already had one baby when she, as a single parent, accepted a very big responsibility -- to support her widowed mother and her extended family.

Diana's mother was very strong-minded in spite of her young age and began working for her family's very survival, making difficult decisions and hard choices for a teenager. After she married and had two more babies, the hardest choice was to leave the village and move to the city. Her biggest dream was to break the cycle of poverty for her family, but Diana's mother had no map to guide her in her journey. One day, she simply took her family and walked out of that jungle toward the nearest city, following her dream for her children and her children's children. Diana was carried toward her destiny on that day, and the first stop was Lima, Peru.

Diana, our heroine, was able to attend school in Lima and was a bright, diligent, and eager student, but schoolwork didn't allow her to learn as much as she wanted to learn. So every day that she could, she walked 20 blocks to the library because she loved to read and to learn about many things. As she walked through the groves of olive trees that lined her way to the library, she imagined that she could go to college in the United States.

In third grade, Diana had a teacher (really, her Fairy Godmother) who was not only a gifted educator but also a strong woman like her mother. One day, Diana told this teacher that she had a very big dream -- to go over the sea to the United States to attend college so she could become a teacher. Diana's teacher, as any fairy godmother should, did not dismiss young Diana's dream; a dream that would have been summarily dismissed with laughter by most grownups. This teacher stopped to think very hard before she spoke to this small child with a dream because she knew that the dreams of children made in the deepest recesses of their hearts are the most powerful dreams in the world. She also knew that the dreams of children are the "promises that propel nations, that explain acts of courage, and allow the taking of risks" (p. 298). And she knew, most of all, that she couldn't let Diana down.

Diana's eyes opened wide with surprise when the teacher said to her, you can make your dream come true, but there are three important and difficult things you must do to make it happen. You must study English very hard to become fluent in the English language. You must get very high marks in school to be eligible for a scholarship that will pay your way (because Diana's teacher knew that her parents had only a very modest

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income even though they worked very hard. Her mother was a seamstress and her father was a driver of trucks.) And the last and, perhaps, most difficult task before you is to persuade your parents to let you go across the sea to attend a university in the United States and become a teacher.

Through her advice, Diana's first mentor gave her a plan that became the "birch canoe" for her journey to the United States. Much later, the grown-up Diana said, "My teacher gave me a map and a knapsack for my journey. She told me how to prepare... and operationalized my dream into manageable pieces" (p. 295). This teacher made it possible for Diana to really make her dream come true.

Several years later, an unsure but excited young 17-year-old woman arrived in the United States. Following her life's dream to become a teacher, Diana paddled her metaphorical canoe to the state of Minnesota (a far cry from the jungles of Peru) and became a teacher. Along her life's journey in rivers, lakes, and the sea, Diana graduated four years after arriving in the United States with a Bachelor's Degree in Sociology from the College of St. Benedict in Minnesota. She then received another Bachelor's Degree in Social Science two years later from St. Cloud State University. Four years later, she was awarded her Master's Degree in Bilingual Education from Boston State College and she is currently completing her doctoral coursework at Boston University.

But our story does not end here! In her work with children, Diana began very quickly to grow within the education profession and continued growing and growing, somewhat like Alice in Wonderland in her own fairy tale. And one fine day, Diana realized that she was the "captain of her own vessel, and hit the shoals on occasion, but more often than not, rode full sail... in harbors, rivers, lakes, and most importantly, at sea " (p. 295). There she found that even in the United States, she had to work with harbormasters and other sea captains in her work village who behaved like wicked stepsiblings and whose ideas about what women can and cannot do were almost as narrow and confining as they were in Peru.

Sailing this turbulent sea of change, Diana began to learn that even the bravest and strongest female sea captain still needs help and support -- like the little girl in the metaphorical birch canoe who drew her strength from the legacy of strong women in her life, especially her mother and her favorite teacher. These two strong-minded women, who were her strongest role models, had given Diana a powerful legacy. Her dreams had come true because her mother had risked everything to make a better life possible for Diana, and her teacher had given her a clear vision of how to achieve her dreams.

Our brave heroine then realized that she already had a group of strong and wise friends who could and would give her needed support in the dangerous and scary seas. They could buoy her up much like a group of female dolphins who use their own bodies to support and lift up a pregnant dolphin, keeping her air hole open during the birthing so she can breathe. One day, Diana desperately needed support when she attended an informal get-away with some of her female friends who worked together with our heroine as a team, making plans for the welfare of school children. Diana, who was always properly dressed at her work village, dressed very causally for this retreat as a way to relax. But bad luck happens even to good people, and Diana's work village intruded into this relaxing time when she received an urgent telephone call and was told that she must come immediately to an emergency meeting and that a car would pick her up in a few minutes.

Now just picture our Cinderella... in her red sweatpants and dirty sneakers. She knew that her carriage was coming, and she couldn't go the ball in these rags, with this hairdo, and certainly not these shoes! What was Diana to do? Within only a few moments of Diana's clothing crisis, her team members gathered around her and calmed her fears. Having talked quickly among themselves, her friends told her that they could get her ready for the ball by dressing her with their own clothes. You see, many of her friends had dressed for a ball -- even at a retreat.

One woman took off her blue business suit and helped our heroine put it on. A second friend ran in from the bathroom and gave Diana her stockings and navy shoes to put on, and still another handed her a blouse that perfectly matched the blue suit. (At this point in our story, you no doubt have a visual image of the Fairy Godmother, transforming Cinderella with a touch of her wand.) In only a few minutes, as if by magic, Diana was truly transformed for the emergency meeting because her friends had buoyed her up with their support. As she noted much later, "My colleagues had lifted me up to keep my air hole open. In a very real sense, they all accompanied me to that meeting. I carried their presence with me" (p. 295).

Diana Lam, our heroine, never dreamed that when she left Peru to be a teacher that she would lead many teachers and others on the behalf of children. After all, little schoolgirls in Lima, Peru, don't dream of being school superintendents!

Today, Diana Lam, our *Cinderella of Schools,* is viewed as one of the top education leaders in the United States and recognized as pioneer for female school administrators across the nation. In each of the superintendent's positions she has held, she was not only the first woman, but also the first minority. In 1989, when she took her first job as superintendent, women held only eight percent of the top school jobs. And it was as San Antonio's first female superintendent that Lam earned a national reputation as an urban reformer. Under her leadership, the number of low performing schools in the district dropped from 40 to 6 in her first year there.

Given her professional success as an administrator, you might think that Diana has outgrown her dream to be a teacher -- but you would be very mistaken. She has never abandoned her original dream. While serving as a superintendent, Diana continues to teach second graders, high school students, and graduate students in educational administration classes. She also mentored six young women beginning when they were in the 8th grade and continuing throughout their high school years. As Diana noted, "We read books together and attended many cultural events. My students and I exchange journals, and reading and responding to these engaging writers is a source of pleasure and renewal to me" (p. 298). Our Diana serves as role model, teacher, motivator, and cheerleader to these young women. This mentorship to young girls and women allows Diana to pass the torch, continuing the legacy of strong-minded women who will then help others achieve their dreams.

I met Diana Lam - then and now the Superintendent of the Providence, Rhode Island public schools -- in 1997, when she delivered the keynote address at the annual conference of the Texas Council of Women School Executives (TCWSE). Immediately following her incredible speech, she agreed to allow us to publish the speech in a TCWSE-sponsored monograph that would include stories about the professional and personal lives of female leaders in educational administration. She became one of my heroes that day.

Let's review some of the lessons we have learned about life and hope and dreams from this real Cinderella of Schools:

- Dreams can come true only if you make them happen.
- You must legitimize your dreams by sharing them with others.
- As a parent, you must honor and support the dreams of your own children.
- You need people who believe in you and in your dreams.
- You need strong friends who will lift you up when you hit rough seas.
- Never underestimate your need to draw strength from others.
- You must mentor and sponsor young women as they ride their own rapids.
- You will need new dreams along life's journey.
- Dreams are not the stuff of fairy tales but of how to live your life.

I want to share with you the question, taken from the work of poet Mary Oliver, that Diana Lam used to open her keynote address at that 1997 conference for women in school leadership. This thought-provoking question serves well the new beginnings that each woman aspiring to be a school administrator today should answer in her own way: *"Tell me, what is it you plan to do with your one wild and precious life?"* For me, I plan to continue to make my dreams come true. What about you?

Note

This article is based on a speech given by the author at a graduation ceremony at Texas Woman's University in May 2001. The facts and quotations for this article were taken from Diana Lam's keynote address to the 1997 Annual Meeting of the Texas Council of Women School Executives, which was subsequently published in 2000 as "Our Wild and Precious Lives" (pp. 294-301) in *Women as School Executives: The Complete Picture* by A. Pankake, G. Schroth, and C. Funk (Eds.).

Chapter 38

Eleven Or Matryoshkas

Marilyn L. Grady

It occurs to me that my teaching career is much like matryoshkas, or the 11-year-old, in that I am many teachers and teaching experiences nested inside me. Perhaps my outside does not reveal the inside, yet it is the inside that informs my teaching today.

I was recently asked to speak on the topic of teaching. The two-minute speaking extravaganza caused me to think about my teaching more than preparing a promotion and tenure file ever has.

Preparing for the presentation and thinking about the topic was a great distraction from all other activities. I was at a loss as to what I could say to a group of distinguished faculty members since I perceived them to be more skilled and accomplished than I could ever hope to be.

So, I chose to speak about the only part of teaching that I am even remotely expert at... my teaching career. It hasn't been particularly noteworthy except for the fact that no one could have planned or prepared for the career path I've followed.

Had I known where I was going when I was in a preparation program, I most definitely would have focused on a few different topics. At 21, Nebraska clearly wasn't in my crystal ball.

I can say that I have been many places - unplanned for, but certainly challenging. I never expected my student teaching experience in a South Bend, Indiana high school to include armed guards placed there in response to the race riots that were occurring at that time.

Nor did I ever prepare to teach outdoor recreation to behaviorally maladjusted junior high students. My background in American history, Russian history, German history, and English hardly equipped me to imagine all the possibilities of what fun students could have with sharp sticks, fishing hooks, matches, and boats. Had I only known... something... anything....

Nor did I ever prepare for, or even imagine, teaching in the one-of-a-kind, one room magnet school for pregnant students nestled within the boundaries of a large, consolidated school district. Had I only known... something... anything....

Yet, when it was time to march off to teach history in a bona fide high school, I was still too naïve to recognize why that particular job opening would occur in November. Oh, I see, the football season was over and the classroom was not nearly as much fun as the football field. Had I only known... something... anything....

And then one day, I found myself as a teaching principal in an elementary school and discovered what it meant to teach a small person to read. Had I followed the path that I thought was my road when I was 21, I would have missed one of the best jobs I've ever had. Had I only known... something... anything....

Nor did I ever expect to be responsible for coordinating pathophysiology instruction in a medical school. Yet I learned the greatest secret medicine has to offer, which is... wash your hands.

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Nor did I ever imagine being responsible for teaching undergraduates or placing student teachers -- yet I did and I'm glad I did.

And when I finally became a professor in a subject area that I had prepared for, I didn't realize what I'd become. For you see, I had intended to be a professor since I was nine years old, when I read an A. J. Cronin novel that described the life of the university in a very provocative fashion.

A story by Sandra Cisneros that my son read for a class and then shared with the rest of the family really has stuck with me. *Women Hollering Creek* is the tale of an 11-year-old who says, "What they don't understand about birthdays and what they never tell you is that when you're eleven, you're also ten, and nine, and eight, and seven, and six, and five, and four, and three, and two, and one." The 11-year-old explains how on different days those differently aged parts of us come out. I can identify with the 11-year-old because on different days, I am not the chronological age I am today -- I am, indeed, the mesh of days gone by.

Recently, I spent too much time in a place called Izmailova Park (home of Peter the Great, the Romanovs, and the Church of the Nativity) and Sergiyev Posad (Zagorsk) -- meeting artists and examining an endless array of carefully, painstakingly crafted matryoshkas. As I observed the artists' work, I was constantly mindful of the lessons I had been taught about the value of matryoshkas being proportionally related to the number of dolls nested together, so 14 is better than 12, 12 is better than 10, 10 is better than 8, 8 is better than 6.

It occurs to me that my teaching career is much like matryoshkas, or the 11-year-old, in that I am many teachers and teaching experiences nested inside me. Perhaps my outside does not reveal the inside, yet it is the inside that informs my teaching today.

I think, too, of a recent experience I had with Elizabeth, my youngest child, who is now seven. She arrived in the summer of 1997 at the age of two, an age of child I had sought to adopt 12 years earlier but who came, instead, when I least expected her. And she came terrified and crying. From the time the sun went down until the sun came up, for three consecutive months, she cried.

And I think of Meredith, her preschool teacher, who poured herself into this little child, making it possible for her to grow comfortable, confident, and emotionally strong. When it was time for Elizabeth to transition to a new teacher at the end of the school year, she was able to do so because she carried Meredith's love and caring and spectacular teaching inside her. And I know that that fine teacher, Meredith, will be nestled inside Elizabeth for the rest of her life.

That is what happens for the students when we connect with them. I see teachers being nested in their students, just as we, the teachers, are nests of all of our teaching experiences.

And so, if I were to return to Izmailova Park, I think I would take more seriously the 14... and the 12... and the 10 matryoshkas as I reflect on my work as a teacher.

Chapter 39

Passing the Torch

Carole Funk

In memory of my mother, Alice Thomas, who was my first grade teacher and who taught over 50 years in public and private education.

The dreaded phone call
A moment surreal
And the world shifts
Forever.

The long drive home
Alone with flooding memories.
Seeing her again in my mind's eye
But she's young forever now.

Friends and family
Gather to mourn her loss
Remember her beauty and
Celebrate her life.
Former students
Some we both taught
Stopped me in the chapel
Telling how she touched their lives.

One young woman said
"I'm an artist because
Your mother encouraged me
To color outside the lines
And use any color I wanted."

On the pew with my only sister
And two granddaughters
We mourned silently and dry-eyed
Knowing she needed peace.

My sister then leaned over
Saying, "I've dreaded this
Moment all my life."
And we held hands.

Then laying her to rest
Beside our father,
My grown sons were sobbing
She was their mom, too!

Each family member
Laid a single rose
On her coffin
To say goodbye.

As we left her there
I heard my son say
To his brother . . .
"Now only Mom
And Aunt Mary are left!"

Thus the torch was passed.

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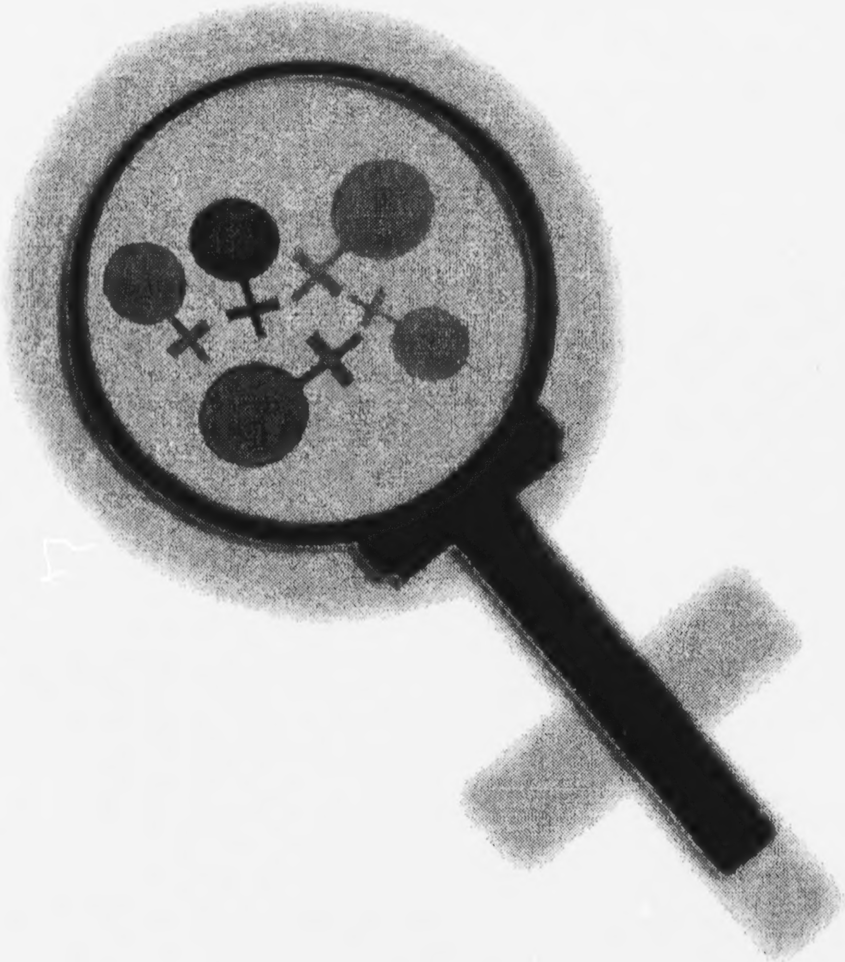
Renewing Women in Leadership Positions

Women as School Executives:
Research and Reflections on Educational Leadership



Chapter 40

Growth of Critical Analysis through Practical Inquiry: Impact on Leadership

Betty J. Alford

The practical inquiry process provides the opportunity for school renewal in confronting problems of equity and excellence to end discriminatory practices and foster increased student academic growth. In short, the practical inquiry process provides students the opportunity to practice leadership skills.

"Where have all the *r* words gone?" could be a question for educators in the 21st century. In the 1990s, a time period in education that has been referred to as the Restructuring Movement (DuFour & Eaker, 1998), restructuring, relearning, reschooling, reforming, rethinking, reculturing, and refining were but a few of the *r* words that were common in the educational literature. *Meeting the Information Needs of Education Policymakers* (OERI, 1997b) reported, "The nation is in the midst of a dynamic period of school reform" (p. 3).

Currently, schools face enormous challenges. In response to a mandate issued by the 103rd Congress in 1994 requiring the establishment of national education research priorities, the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) issued *Building Knowledge for a Nation of Learners: A Framework for Educational Research* (1997a), which stated:

> Today, rapid political and technological change around the world has created another crises of confidence and another moment of opportunity. Will Americans be ready to meet the demands of a new era? Will our young people be equipped for economic survival and growth in the 21st century? Can we strengthen the bonds among people from different racial, ethnic, cultural, and socioeconomic groups and sustain the nation's democratic institutions? Responding to these challenges, Americans have once again hoisted education reform to the top of the national and local agendas (p. 1).

As the new century continues to unfold, schools that have been in the throes of reforming, restructuring, reculturing, and reinventing are now seeking to identify, "Where do we need to go from here?" The calls for reform no longer sound new as the need for reform of our nation's schools has been made abundantly clear in current educational research and in the policymaking arena. However, study of the reform process and the identification of next steps remain necessary activities. As schools are implementing new ideas, an r word remains of utmost importance. That *r* word is research. As OERI's *Building Knolwedge* report (1997a) stated,

> We are poised at a unique moment in the history of educational research and development. The level of interest in improving America's schools is unprecedented. A solid body of educational research now exists upon which to build new knowledge, and evidence is mounting that past

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> research has already led to improved advances in educational practices (p. 2).

The need for research is reinforced in OERI's *Meeting the Information* report (1997b), which proclaimed, "The current wave of school reform is unlikely to bear fruit without a continued influx of new ideas and progress reports from research studies" (p. 17). DuFour and Eaker (1998) further stressed the need for educational research by stating:

> The engine of improvement, growth, and renewal in a professional learning community is collective inquiry. People in such a community are relentless in questioning the status quo, seeking new methods, testing those methods, and then reflecting on the results (p. 25).

Just as the 21st century marks a time period when educators are working to implement and sustain change, this century also reflects a time period in which educators are more fully recognizing the importance of various forms of inquiry. Research has been defined as "disciplined inquiry" (Sagor, 1993, p. 9) and embodies multiple forms of methodologies. The positivistic period of the 1970s has been described as the theory movement in educational administration in which educational researchers sought to quantify dimensions of educational issues. However, the current postmodern period is characterized by various frames of references, such as critical theory and feminine theory, and characterized by reflective inquiry approaches, such as narrative storytelling, ethnography, and portraiture (Murphy, 1999). It is within this context of multiple forms of inquiry that educators are charged with becoming doers as well as users of research for the purposes of accomplishing school improvement (OERI, 1997a).

As educational leadership programs seek to "help link leadership more forcefully to productive schools and enhanced educational outcomes" (Murphy, 1999, p. 108), changes in demographics (Capper, 1993), increasing needs of technology (Starratt, 1996), and demands of accountability systems are but three of the many challenges that school leaders face as they seek to improve the academic performance of students. As schools "become more responsive to changes and challenges in the complex and dynamic social arena we call education" (Starratt, 1996, p. xv), action research and practical inquiry become part of the changing world of school administration for addressing real problems in schools toward the purpose of engaging students and faculty in "inquiry that matters" (Cabron-McCabe, 1999, p. 223). Important steps in achieving school change include creating a context for change, building the capacity of educators to handle change, and facilitating conversations among the key stakeholders (Smith, 2001). Each of these steps can be realized through the practical inquiry process.

Rationale for the Practical Inquiry Courses

The principal preparation program at Stephen F. Austin State University (SFA) seeks to meet the above needs of addressing real problems within schools through the implementation of two courses in practical inquiry that are required of principal preparation students.

In *Leaders for America's Schools* (Griffiths, Stout, & Forsyth, 1988), recommendations for reform of principal preparation programs included an emphasis on critical reflectivity resulting in positive changes in schools. In response to this need, the faculty in the Department of Educational Leadership at SFA fostered each student's reflectivity through dialogue in classes, sharing of journal responses, and required reflective papers in which each student considered, "What do the readings really mean to me and my practice?"

Then, ten years after the *Leaders for America's Schools* was published, SFA's

Department of Secondary Education and Educational Leadership developed a more comprehensive response to the calls for reflectivity by implementing a two-semester action research/practical inquiry course sequence in addition to an introductory research course that is required for all students. The practical inquiry course requires each student to select a problem of practice in his or her school and to design a practical inquiry or action research study to address the issue. Consistent with the recommendation that preparation programs engage in authentic collaboration with school districts in the preparation of new administrators, each student works closely with a mentor who also serves as a practicing administrator in the school. The mentor engages in discussions with the student to identify problems for inquiry and study. Through consideration of the purpose, power, and policies in schools, students are encouraged to select an important problem of practice for investigation in order to influence, initiate, or sustain a change effort.

Reflection and critical inquiry skills are important characteristics of the practical inquiry course sequence. As stated in the *Building Knowledge* report (OERI, 1997a):

> If we infuse a more reflective and analytic approach into all of our educational endeavors, we can renew a sense of confidence and hope in our nation's educational enterprise.... We can journey together, using research as a roadmap toward a time in which all learning and all institutions are committed to excellence and equity - not just in principle, but also in practice (pp. 85-86).

Through this process, student learning can be enhanced.

The change requiring a two-semester sequenced action research course as part of the SFA principal preparation program also paralleled a change in certification rules for Texas principals, which now require a practical inquiry/action research study during the principal preparation program (State Board for Educator Certification, 1999). The state rules, however, did not specify that separate courses had to be established in order to satisfy the new requirement.

Implementing the Practical Inquiry Courses

In implementing the first practical inquiry courses, the faculty met as a study group every other week throughout the first two semesters. During these meetings, the faculty study group engaged in dialogue concerning practical inquiry, strategies for teaching the courses, and problems students were encountering. In addition, a common sequence for the practical inquiry or action research project was formulated consisting of an introduction; a contextual description of the community, school district, and the campus; a review of the literature; a design of the study; presentation of the findings, conclusions, limitations, and recommendations; and a conceptual model. The report would be prepared incrementally over the two-semester course sequence with peer review and dialogue in class characterizing each phase of the practical inquiry sequence. Although the final written report would follow the American Psychological Association (APA) style manual, the final product would not be presented to an outside committee, as with a thesis presentation. Instead, the student would present the study through a PowerPoint presentation during which the student would be videotaped for his or her own critique. The students in the class would serve as a role-play audience of a site-based team, school board, or other designated school audience determined by the students. After the presentation, the student would respond to at least two questions from the group, including a clarifying question and a challenge question.

By conducting the class in small group sessions and through the ongoing discussion of each student's project, each study group would become knowledgeable about all the other practical inquiry topics, research literature, and methodologies. Students participated in discussions of the research pertinent to each study. As one student commented, "I don't just know my action research project, I feel that I know a great deal about five other projects."

Significance of the Reports

During the initial two semesters of the practical inquiry/action research sequence, the faculty jointly planned the sessions, using common texts and assigned readings to augment the study. In subsequent years, a common syllabus for each course continues to be used; however, each professor selects additional readings and discussion items for the sessions. A common focus has been maintained regarding the selection of projects that matter for school improvement, consistent with the OERI *Building Knowledge* report (1997a), which stated:

> The aim of research is not just to stockpile knowledge, but to achieve a deep understanding of what education means in today's world and how it can be strengthened.... To paraphrase IBM chief executive Louis Gerstner, it is not only about predicting rain, it is also about building arks (p. 6).

The students in the principal preparation program at SFA are encouraged to choose topics in which they have a passionate interest. They are cautioned that for two semesters their selected topics will require a significant investment of time, extensive reading of the professional literature, and collection and analysis of data. The topic should, therefore, be one in which they can experience "flow," that sense of timelessness that Csikszentmihalyi (1990) described when one is so so interested in the work that, for example, five hours in the library can seem as one. Students are also encouraged to select a topic that meets a demonstrated need and that can make a positive difference in their schools. For this, students are encouraged to consult their mentors. Examples of topics that have been selected include the study of the benefits of and recommendations for after-school programs, character education programs, reading programs, parent involvement, student preparation for college admission tests, violence prevention in schools, and professional development plans.

The practical inquiry process provides the opportunity for school renewal in confronting problems of equity and excellence to end discriminatory practices and foster increased student academic growth, such as a study of gender dynamics in the classroom to examine girls' experiences in studying mathematics and science. In short, the practical inquiry process provides students the opportunity to practice leadership skills. Whitt (1994) identified the importance of high expectations, role models, and the opportunity to practice leadership skills for women. As Langdon (2001) stated, "Leadership opportunities build confidence" (p. 19). In addition, completing the practical inquiry cycle provides students with the opportunity to bridge theory and practice. The *Building Knowledge* report (OERI, 1997a) stated:

> Educational research is most powerful when it gives us tools to help us learn from our experiences in ways that make us better learners and teachers.... Administrators at every level can make research geared to educational improvement part of the daily life of their program, school, or institution rather than a specific project or an occasion. Searching for ways to improve student achievement can become part of every administrator's job description (p. 79).

Steps in the Process

Once topics are selected, the work begins. The first step is the development of a contextual description of the campus, district, and community. To create a picture of the local context and identified strengths and needs, students seek information from chamber of commerce websites, district and campus records, and personal interviews. During this part of the course, the importance of understanding the context before enacting change is emphasized, as is the importance of making decisions based on data. Students are encouraged to not simply copy the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) reports for their campuses, which are prepared by the Texas Education Agency. Instead, students are encouraged to approach the AEIS data as a new principal would by asking, "What are the red flags of concern?" In class, students discuss school improvement and critical inquiry and are encouraged to ask, "Why are we doing it this way? Whose interests are being served? Is there a better way?"

Following the contextual description of the schools, a literature review is conducted on the research topic. Each class meeting, students engage in dialogue and a peer review process. Upon completing the literature review, students specify the study design to include data sources, methodology, and project timelines. During the second semester, the study is conducted. Students gain skills in developing surveys and conducting interviews. Criticisms of student-developed surveys are provided in class through peer review. As data is collected and analyzed, peers again serve as debriefers to establish trustworthiness of the findings. Reporting of the data is provided through discussion of the findings, recommendations, and conclusions with insertions of tables and figures where necessary to clarify the points. Professional preparation and presentation of the report is discussed as an important part of the action research process in that students are expected to present their reports to campus leaders.

Study Design for Evaluating the Practical Inquiry Sequence

Just as students are encouraged to study their own practices, this report shares the findings of an SFA faculty member's continuous inquiry of the implementation of the practical inquiry courses. The purpose of the study was to identify the benefits of the practical inquiry process to students' leadership development and to school improvement and to determine recommendations for improvement of the process.

Over eight semesters of the implementation of four practical inquiry/action research sequences, 24 students were asked to respond to a survey after completing the findings section of their research project. The survey asked two questions: 1) What are the benefits of the action research/practical inquiry project? and 2) What recommendations would you make to improve the project?

All 24 students responded to the survey, using the terms practical inquiry and action research interchangeably. A professor of the practical inquiry course sequence analyzed responses to the open-ended questions and identified themes.

Benefits of the Action Research/Practical Inquiry Project

The benefits of the action research/practical inquiry project centered around two major categories of themes: enhancing personal development and usefulness as a tool for school development. Respondents also recognized that practical inquiry is not a quick-fix solution to either personal development or school improvement but, instead, must be an ongoing activity.

Personal Development

Research Skills. One would suspect that benefits derived from a research course would be the attainment of enhanced research skills, and this, indeed, emerged as a primary theme in the students' responses. For example, students commented:

- Though this class has been extremely demanding of my time, I do feel like I have learned many skills that I will need in the future as a principal.

- I was able to learn to use different methods of assessing a problem situation. With this, I was able to analyze the information and to make accurate decisions based on the findings.
- Through this research, I have gained valuable knowledge in learning how to locate data and interpret the findings.
- This process has presented new ways to look for, locate, and collect data. This data is useful when making informed decisions for my campus.
- The procedure of practical inquiry has developed the skills involved in approaching a problem area.
- My skills in data collection, problem writing, technology, and leadership were all strengthened by doing this inquiry. I feel more confident in my abilities in these areas because of this class. I will continue to update my skills in these areas as I move forward into my role as the instructional leader of my campus.

Communication Skills. Another benefit emerging from the students' responses was their increased communication skills. As students stressed:

- This class has improved my written and verbal communication skills by allowing my work to be shared with my peers. I believe by personally sharing my project with members of the school community, they were very willing to express their true feelings about the safety of their school. This led to an effective study of concerns.
- This class has improved my written and verbal communication by allowing my work to be shared. I will be more effective as an administrator by learning these important tools of decision making and leadership.
- Because I did the research and looked closely at the data, I have gained knowledge that will help me communicate more effectively.

Decision-Making Skills. A primary theme from the students' responses concerning the benefits of the practical inquiry projects was increased recognition of the importance of practical inquiry in decision making. As students commented:

- The data gives validity and strengthens decision making for the improvement of the school for all children.
- An instructional leader must be able to gather and organize information from a variety of sources to make effective decisions.
- It is important to look at a variety of research studies in order to make an informed decision that will work for your school and campus. The research and data I collected have been very valuable to the ongoing decisions that I have had to make for our reading program.
- Gathering data and analysis of findings allows the instructional leader, along with the staff, to help in campus decision-making.

A Tool for School Development

School Improvement. As Donaldson (2001) suggested, "A new leadership model must construe school leadership as bringing about student learning.... The proof of leadership has long been in the actions" (p. 89). The practical inquiry projects were not designed as esoteric conceptual papers to be placed on a shelf. Instead, the students were encouraged to use the practical inquiry projects as aids in the school improvement process in their roles as school leaders. Through the practical inquiry process, students recognized the importance of research to school improvement as illustrated by the following representative comments:

- Through this class, I have learned about the practicality of an action research project to the school improvement process

- I think by learning more about research itself, I will be able to utilize that knowledge to become more of a campus leader. As the instructional leader of the school, the principal must have an understanding of the entire school process.
- Through this research process, I have seen the importance of re-evaluating programs and practices to achieve the best for the students. If something is not working, it is important not to continue on, but to reassess and to develop a new plan to achieve the desired results.
- Developing a practical inquiry project can help an administrator learn about his/her campus and can create opportunities to create a great school.

Creating Ownership and Responsiveness. Practical inquiry was also viewed as a way of creating ownership in the school and of being more responsive to community input. As students stated:

- Research of a problem or solution leads the school and school officials into an in-depth look at the school, community, parents, and students. The data gives the leader a focus on what could be accomplished and a vision of what is to be done next. Analyzing the community allows the school staff to have an idea of the community's wants and wishes. It gives the staff an opportunity to gain ownership in areas of concern.
- As a principal, I believe that I must know the needs and identify ways to meet these needs. To be effective, I have to bring the staff together and develop an understanding of what they feel is needed.
- As a principal, I need to use the resources and data available to me, including research sources and opinions of parents, teachers, community members, business representatives, and students.
- It is important to seek input from the people that the decision will affect directly. The more people involved will allow ownership to be shared among staff members.
- I believe that the experience will help me be more effective in understanding the needs of a campus including those needs of teachers, students, school personnel, and parents.

Creating a Community of Learners. Students recognized the practical value of research as a tool in creating a school culture of continuous learning wherein the success of all students is promoted and learning is viewed as a requirement for all. Through the practical inquiry process, students recognized this important component of their role as an instructional leader. Barth (2001) suggested that as educators, we should strive to create schools where the underlying culture is one of learning. As Barth (2001) stressed, "The condition for membership in the community is that one learns, continues to learn, and supports the learning of others. Everyone" (p. 13). Kimmel (1999) emphasized, "A feminist pedagogue must be a life-long learner!" (p. 68). Through the collaborative process of practical inquiry, the students recognized the value of ongoing learning, not just by the instructional leader, but by everyone. As students elaborated:

- I have learned a great deal about school communities that will be of great benefit when I am a principal trying to create a warm, enriching learning environment for both employees and students.
- The concept of inquiry is to go and find out. For this, it is important to know where to look for data, know how to analyze the data for meaning, and know how to report the findings that emerge in a responsible manner. Knowing, along with practicing, these processes will lead to a successful community of learners.

Development is an Ongoing Process

A principal's role is to be "relentless in questioning the status quo, seeking new methods, testing those methods, and then reflecting on those results" (Donaldson, 2001, p. 25). Students recognized through the practical inquiry projects that personal and school development cannot result from one-time efforts. Rather, personal and school growth require an ongoing commitment of time and study. The research skills gained through the practical inquiry process will enable students to continue to employ these skills in the ongoing processes of their own personal growth as well as school improvement efforts. As students stated:

- I think my study can have great impact on the school improvement process.
- Educators must be able to gather and organize materials effectively. Research into problems or programs will be needed to decide what avenues to take toward implementation. Looking at ways to make a campus better will take time and effort.
- I believe that the evaluation of programs through data helps to account for future recommendations.
- What works for others does not always work for everyone. I have learned the importance of staying current with issues that may affect your school.
- In order to be on the edge of the current trends and to use data to enhance a vision, an administrator must be well read and up to date on all their data.
- As a leader, I plan to continue what I have been doing already this semester. As I meet with the campus improvement council and make plans for the near- and long-term future, I will continue to use all the information available to solve problems.

Recommendations for Improving the Practical Inquiry Courses

The primary recommendations identified by the students for improving the practical inquiry sequence focused on course delivery, course sequence, and collaborative rather than individual inquiry. Students' comments concerning the course sequence centered on sequencing the project over the entire program sequence and having only two semesters of research courses in the program. The following comments are representative of the recommendations that were most frequently suggested:

- My first response would be to make the practical inquiry project one semester. However, after thinking about the process, I would not suggest that. Students need the time to get it all done. The step-by-step process was wonderful!
- Why don't they combine the research methods class and just have two semesters of research courses in the program, completing the study of the topic that was identified in the first research methods class in the second research course [instead of requiring an introductory research course and two practical inquiry courses?

Faculty members discussed these suggestions and everyone agreed that the research sequence should be modified to the two-semester course sequence with the introductory research course concepts infused into the practical inquiry course sequence.

Students also emphasized the importance of collaborative practical inquiry processes and suggested that students from the same district be allowed to collaboratively develop the practical inquiry process. As Schlechty (2001) stressed, "Even when the changes called for are relatively minor in scope, the change process usually requires more leadership than any one person can provide, no matter how talented that person might be" (p. 177). Students emphasized the importance of team efforts in the practical inquiry process to achieve changes in school practices. As a student stressed, "The practical inquiry project could be a great project to involve other teachers and administrators to work together on a project to benefit their school." As a result, the faculty is considering the request for collaborative practical inquiry projects.

As a result of the survey, faculty was pleased to see the value that students had attributed to the practical inquiry process, which included students' recognition of the benefit of the process to their growth as a school leader and to the school improvement process. Summing up the experience, one student expressed a commonly held view: "I have grown as an educator and as a future administrator."

Conclusion

Attention to context, capacity building, and ongoing conversations are essential to the change process (Smith, 2001) and are evident in the practical inquiry process. In addition, the practical inquiry process provides the opportunity for students to influence social responsibility and action. Although Kimmel (2001) listed social responsibility and action as central concepts in feminist thought and pedagogy, she further added, "Certainly, feminists are not the only educators who have promulgated these concepts" (p. 67). Practical inquiry as a tool for achieving equity and excellence in schools is an important process for all school leaders. The impact of the practical inquiry projects in the development of critical analysis for successful school leadership was evidenced by students' affirmation of the personal benefits of increased research, communication, and decision-making skills as well as affirmation of the school development benefits by using the inquiry process as a tool for school improvement, creating ownership and responsiveness, and creating a community of learners. Practical inquiry is an ongoing process requiring time and study to achieve both personal growth and school improvement. Recommendations for improving the course sequence included: 1) continuing the two-semester practical inquiry sequence, 2) eliminating the introductory research course, and 3) allowing and encouraging collaborative projects.

Influenced by the calls for changes in educational preparation programs, the faculty at SFA sought to transform the focus of preparation from managerial skills to leadership development. We sought to develop a conceptual framework through a cohesive blend of courses focusing on leadership development that would better prepare school leaders to build communities of inquiry in schools. Skills in critically examining and designing research were considered integral and important components of leadership development as we embarked on the process of helping students become practitioner-scholars who would influence school improvement through practical inquiry. In addition, the identification of a school mentor who would assist in the selection of the practical inquiry project was important. Eckman (2002) found that mentors who provide support, encouragement, and networking opportunities for women are particularly important in furthering women's careers in educational administration. In this study, school mentors assisted in providing opportunities for students to implement and present findings of practical inquiry projects to campus leadership teams. The practical inquiry process proved to be a valuable part of each student's development in school leadership.

The process of continually improving the practical inquiry sequence is ongoing, as well it should be. Facilitating the development of responsible school leaders who can lead schools to become centers of inquiry wherein equity and excellence are realities is too important for the process to cease.

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Chapter 41

Successful Job Hunting Strategies of Women Superintendents

Sandra Lowery
Janiece Buck
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"Network! Network! Network!" was the number one statement of advice to those seeking the position. Specifically, finding mentors for different purposes and drawing on their expertise and connections is pivotal. Nurturing relationships - even ones that do not immediately appear to be beneficial - may prove to be powerful connections in the future

Despite reports of the glass ceiling phenomenon and its detrimental effects on females rising to the top in a given field, more and more women educators are breaking through this barrier to become CEOs of school districts in the United States. Even though the pressures and uncertainties of such positions are many, women superintendents are successfully navigating the challenges of working with all stakeholders in the learning community and are also assuming leadership positions in local, state, and national organizations. The call to educate all students to high standards is being answered by very capable women administrators who, in the words of one female superintendent, eagerly accept the "challenge to be the rudder of the ship of education."

Successfully serving as a superintendent is not nearly as difficult for many women as is actually securing the position. Glass, Bjork, & Brunner (2000) found that many school boards still do not actively recruit women for the superintendent position. Gender continues to be a factor in acquiring superintendent positions, as women with credentials, experience, and references comparable to men remain disadvantaged in the search process. Grogan (1996) noted that a doctorate degree enhances any applicants' desirability in many districts. Interestingly, Tallerico (2000) reported that more practicing female superintendents held doctorate degrees than males (56.8% compared to 43.8%).

Academic preparation is only one part of the overall training necessary for the superintendency. Administrative experience is also a prerequisite for obtaining a superintendency position. In recent years, with the cracking of the glass ceiling, women have increased their numbers in the principalship and in mid-management positions within district central offices. Women currently hold many principal positions, primarily at elementary and middle school levels Tallerico (2000). Fewer women serve as principals at the high school level, which is the traditional career route for male superintendents (Zemlicka, 2001). Although the high school principal may have an

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advantage in the career path to the superintendency, Glass (1992) revealed that any principalship was a step for three-fourths of the nation's superintendents.

Jones and Montenegro (1992) identified patterns that assisted women's career advancement to the superintendency, which included meaningful job experiences, documented by professional resumes and strong references. Additionally, Grogan (1996) indicated that women themselves reported feeling that they had to have significant job experience in order to address school board members who have reservations about hiring female superintendents.

Purpose of the Study

This research study takes an in-depth look at how females can enhance their chances of acquiring a superintendent position in small- and medium-sized school districts. It also briefly describes some important problems faced by current female superintendents. At the time of the survey, women held 9.3% of the superintendencies in Texas. Were they just lucky? Were they in the right place at the right time? Are there strategies that might assist other women who aspire to become superintendents?

Participants

Surveys were mailed to 98 selected Texas female superintendents based on the following variables: age, ethnicity, marital status, public education experience, degrees held, and district size Table 1 provides descriptive data for age, ethnicity, marital status and degrees held.

Table 1
Demographics of Participating Female Superintendents

Highest Degree	#	%	Marital Status	#	%	Age	#	%	Ethnicity	#	%
Bachelor's	0	0	Married	52	67	30-39	3	4	White	73	94
Master's	47	63	Single	8	10	40-49	29	37	Afr-Am.	2	2
Doctorate	31	40	Divorced	17	22	50-59	41	52	Hispanic	2	2
			Widowed	1	1	60-69	4	5	Other	0	0
						70-79	1	1	No resp.	1	1
n = 78											

Survey Design

The survey instrument for this study was patterned after a portion of the instrument developed for the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) study (Glass, 1992). In addition, Hoyle, English, and Steffy's (1998) book, *Skills for Successful 21st Century Schools Leaders*, was consulted to ensure clear descriptions of the standards and related skills school leaders must master and apply to administrative positions in education.

Five faculty members from Stephen F. Austin State University assessed the survey for content validity. The panel of experts consisted of one doctoral faculty member, one College of Education faculty member, and three Department of Educational Leadership faculty members. The panel made several suggestions to increase the validity of the survey instrument.

The survey consisted of open-ended questions as well as selections from various options. The questions were designed to obtain information for each participant regarding career path, securing a superintendency, working with board members, and mentoring data. In addition, their perceptions of the characteristics of successful superintendents were sought as well as advice for women seeking a superintendent position.

A series of interviews was then conducted with eight female superintendents attending an AASA Conference. The interviews used the survey instrument designed by the researchers and reviewed by the panel, and the results supported the content validity of the instrument. A pilot group of five active and retired Texas superintendents was then used to complete the survey to further verify the instrument's validity. After a review of the interview data by the researchers and the faculty panel, modifications were made to enhance clarity and two questions were added to the survey instrument.

Data Collection and Analysis

Once the instrument was finalized, it was mailed to the 98 superintendents with a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study and suggesting a two-week return date. Each participant was assured of anonymity and that group data would be used in all reports. In spite of the busy lives superintendents lead, 78 responses were received within the first 10 working days of the study. Due to the large initial response and the nearness of school closings for the year, the researchers chose to use the 80% return rate as adequate for the study.

Findings

One of the most important items on the survey involved motivation for seeking the position of superintendent. A number of the respondents made the point that "you need to be sure you really want the job before you apply/" Table 2 reveals that the most important reason cited for seeking the position was a desire to serve children by improving schools (75%), followed closely by personal goal or ambition (63%). In addition, respondents said they received encouragement from another administrator (45%) from family members (35%), and from board members (14%). College coursework was a motivator fro 20% of the respondents.

Table 2
Motivation to Become a Superintendent

Motivation	Number of Respondents	Percent
Desire to improve schools for children	57	75
Personal goal or ambition	51	63
Encouragement from another administrator	35	45
Encouragement from family members	27	35
College course or program	14	20
Encouraged by board member	11	14

Note: Some respondents chose more than one source of motivation.

A second area pursued in the survey was the career path that respondents experienced prior to assuming the superintendency. The data reveal that women with backgrounds including various educational roles appear more likely to become superintendents. As cited in Table 3, serving solely as a teacher is a greater experiential background for the superintendency than serving solely as either a principal or central office administrator. Forty-four percent of the participants indicated that their career pattern consisted of serving as a teacher, principal, and central office administrator. This data is consistent with findings of the AASA study conducted by Glass, et al. (2000) on career paths of female superintendents, where 46% of females and 49% of males traveled similar paths. Glass, et. al also reported that there has been an increase in the number of men and women who follow this career pattern since the original 1992 AASA study.

Table 3
Career Pattern Prior to the Superintendency

Career Path	Number of Respondents	Percent
Teacher, principal, central office administrator	34	44
Teacher-Principal	16	21
Teacher, central office administrator	13	17
Teacher, education service center	6	8
Teacher only	5	6
Principal only	1	1
Central office administrator only	1	1
Others	2	2

The third item associated with securing a superintendent position was the importance of being willing to relocate to another district. The participants in this study were more likely to secure a superintendency outside their own district (56%). The data also revealed, however, that relocating is not always necessary, as 40% of the respondents reported success in moving into superintendencies in their own district. Three respondents secured superintendencies in their home district and then moved to superintendency positions in other districts.

The participants were then asked to review the steps they took to secure their first superintendency. As indicated in Table 4, half of the respondents simply applied, interviewed, and let "fate run its course." Only 15% reported using a consultant in securing their first superintendency. Others sought a variety of influencing forces to support their candidacy, especially former superintendents and local board members.

Table 4
Steps Taken to Secure First Superintendency

Steps Taken	Number of Respondents	Percent
Simply applied	39	50
Recommended by former superintendent	18	23
Sought out and solicited board members support	17	22
Applied at request of board members	14	18
Worked with a search consultant	12	15
Gained support of teachers	11	14
Recommended by an individual in the district	10	13

Note: Some respondents marked more than one choice making the total larger than 78.

With an open-ended question, the female superintendents were also asked to list in priority order five characteristics of successful superintendents. All of the responses were listed and then tallied by common characteristic descriptions. The five most important characteristics of being a successful superintendent as identified by the participants are prioritized in Table 5. Well-developed people and communication skills were number one with the greatest number of responses (64%).

Table 5
Important Leadership Characteristics of Successful Superintendents

Characteristics	Number of Responses	Percent
Well-developed people and communication skills	58	64
Knowledge of school finance	21	27
Strong background knowledge base of instruction	16	21
Visionary	15	20
Honesty and fairness	15	17
Worked with a search consultant	12	15

Note: Some respondents chose more than one characteristic.

It is no surprise that communication is the number one priority. George Bernard Shaw said, "The greatest problem of communication is the illusion that it has been accomplished" (Spillane & Regnier, p. 219). In *Skills for Successful 21st Century School Leaders*, Hoyle, English, and Steffy (1998) state:

> To truly lead, administrators must be more than technically competent in planning, budget, curriculum design, scheduling, and facility renovation; they must be able to communicate with their constituencies, and they must have something worthwhile and important to say to them. (p. 37)

Grohe (1983) suggests that to be successful, new superintendents must streamline and generate communication. "The worst thing a superintendent can do is to fail to talk to people - school personnel and community members alike" (p.28).

A major concern of superintendents is inadequate school finances to support the educational problems of school districts. In a study conducted by Chapman (1997), inadequate financing was a factor inhibiting the effectiveness of 85% of the superintendents studied. School finance was ranked among the top concerns expressed by respondents to the annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Polls of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools (Jordan & Lyons, 1992). Knowledge of finances is an important leadership characteristic for any superintendent to be successful in managing a school district, and 27% of the participants indicated as much in the rankings.

Third on the list of characteristics was a strong background knowledge base of instruction (21%). In *An Effective Schools Primer* (AASA, 1991), survey respondents ranked strong instructional leadership as the number one quality of school administrator leadership (51%). "If the purpose of schools is teaching and learning, then instruction should be the hub around which all activities of the school revolve" (p. 57).

Being a visionary was ranked fourth (20%) by the female school superintendents. School executives function in the midst of change, and to be prepared for change, a vision must be developed, presented, and accepted by followers in order that appropriate and timely change can be implemented (Buck, 1998) "The skills associated with visioning entail creating mental and verbal pictures of desired future states, persisting and persevering, sharing and creating a new reality with others" (Byrd, 1987, p. 38).

The fifth ranking leadership characteristic was honesty and fairness (17%). Stephen Covey (1991) compares a sense of ethical consistency with "true north principles." According to Covey, "Correct principles are like compasses, they are always pointing the way. And if we know how to ready them, we won't get lost, confused, or fooled by conflicting voices and values" (p. 19). Hoyle, et. al (1998) added, "The charge for school leaders is clear - model accepted moral and ethical behavior" (Hoyle, et al, p.169). The importance of moral leadership is being raised in standards developed by professional organizations as well as state and nation certification programs for every school position, including the superintendency.

The participants were asked to share their insights regarding what would be helpful to other women seeking superintendent positions. Themes that emerged from the comments were: networking, having a vision, having specific knowledge, personal attributes, and family.

"Network! Network! Network!" was the number one statement of advice to those seeking the position (64%). Attending to and developing multiple connections with experienced administrators and search consultants throughout regional, statewide, and national networks has been and remains a key factor in obtaining a superintendency (Wheatley, 1981). Specifically, finding mentors for different purposes and drawing on their expertise and connections is pivotal. Nurturing relationships - even ones that do not immediately appear to be beneficial - may prove to be powerful connections in the future (Tallerico, 2000).

Having a vision was described with comments such as:

- Be credible, be responsive, and be clear about your goals.
- Make sure you really want the job and then stay the course.
- Don't hesitate to apply. Just keep on applying.
- Always take the high road.
- Often you find yourself swimming in a "sea of testosterone." It is at this time you must remember that the heart and the head prove to be the most useful for survival.

Having specific knowledge was another theme that emerged. The following comments are noteworthy:

- Do your homework. Don't get caught unprepared.
- Stay current, read voraciously, you can never know enough.
- A doctorate degree is a must. It opens new doors.
- Learn all you can about finance.

The respondents also consider personal attributes as being important. They think having a good self-concept is important.

- Start younger.
- Promote yourself but do so modestly.
- Don't be thin skinned.
- Always dress professionally.
- Think like a man, work like a dog, but always, always act like a lady.

The female respondents provided advice to other females regarding family. Examples of their advice are:

- Don't try it if you don't have your family's support.
- You will be away from home a good deal of the time.
- Keep a balance with family and career.
- Expect to make sacrifices. You work 60 to 80 hours a week.
- There is lots of loneliness, especially if you are single.

Summary

Of the 98 female superintendents surveyed, 78 responded and nearly all of them wrote comments and suggestions they felt would be helpful to prospective female superintendents.

The survey results provide data regarding successful job searches. Simply applying was the step that 50% of the respondents used to secure their first superintendency. Only 15% worked with a search consultant. The participants in this study were more likely to secure a superintendency outside their own district (56%); however, the data also reveal that relocating is not always necessary since 31% moved to the superintendency within their districts.

Several quotes indicated advice that reflects the participants' dedication and attitude about finding a job as superintendent and serving in that capacity. One such quote was:

> My advice is to get all the education possible. Never be shy about asking for help.... There will be things you cannot confide in anyone.... I absolutely love being a superintendent even though I never dreamed of being one.... I was in the right place at the right time and had been smart enough to get certified. The area I worried about the most, finance, I must have overcompensated for because now it is my best one.... A single female superintendent is a very lonely situation but no reason not to be one. The bottom line is you make a significant difference in your school and can see the results and it feels great.

The respondents' basic comments of advice were positive ones about deciding to become a superintendent and sticking to that decision in the sometimes extended and difficult process of searching for a position.

Fifty-five percent of the respondents indicated that the most successful career path involved teaching, serving as principal, and central office experience. Female superintendents in this study indicated that the most important motivation for seeking a career as a superintendent was the desire to serve children by improving schools

This study also provides insight into what the participants feel are important characteristics of successful superintendents. The five most frequently listed characteristics were communication, knowledge of finance, knowledge base of instruction, being a visionary, and honesty and fairness (17%).

The study provides insight into the career paths and job-hunting strategies of female superintendents in Texas. Females continue to break through the barriers of the glass ceiling phenomenon. This research can be extended to include recruitment of females into the profession.

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Chapter 42

What Factors Motivate and Inhibit Women when Deciding to Become a Principal?

Sandra Harris
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The results support previous research findings that the greatest motivators for female educators who seek the principalship are intrinsic and service-oriented. The results are also consistent with other studies that identify the tremendous time commitment and increased paperwork and bureaucracy as preventing women from deciding to become principals.

Between 1970 and 1980, the increase in women holding managerial and administrative positions in the U.S. work force increased by nearly 100% (Bass, 1990). Yet, women remain underrepresented in leadership positions (Banks & Banks, 1995). Women hold only 13% of management level jobs and 7% of top-level positions (Holtkamp, 2002). For example, women comprise 27% of lawyers, but only 13% earn partnerships. In the banking industry, women comprise nearly 67% of the workforce; yet only 13% of the top executives are women (Allison, 2000, Sept. 11). In education, women comprise 43% of tenure track professors, but only 26% have tenure (Orenstein, 2000). Additionally, only 12% of superintendents are women (Keller, 1999).

Substantial advances have been made in education over the last 15 years, with more females becoming principals. For example, in the 1980s, only 25% of principals were women, but by the early 1990s this had risen to 48%. Most of these women were elementary principals, with only 12% serving at the high school level (Natale, 1992; Saks, 1992). Conversely, about half of the enrollments in university principal preparation programs are women (Bell & Chase, 1993; Logan, 1998) and of those earning doctoral degrees in educational administration, over 50% are women (Gupton & Slick, 1995; Logan 1998). With 66% of teachers being female, these gains are insufficient to overcome the inequality of representation at the mid-management level (Criswell & Betz, 1995).

Career Development Barriers

In 1930-31, a National Educational Association survey found that 77% of districts surveyed would not hire women teachers who were married and 63% would dismiss a

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female teacher if she married (Jamieson, 1995). Times have changed. Today, research suggests that most women will be employed outside the home at some point in their lives and that their work will be important to them. In fact, some women indicate a greater satisfaction from being employed outside the home than working in the traditional role as wife, mother, and community volunteer (Long, 1995).

The family has traditionally influenced the career patterns of women and, today, more careful planning is required for raising children and working outside the home (Jamieson, 1995). According to Machung (1989), women tend to see work as a vehicle for personal satisfaction. They also consider the inequality of gender, assuming that they will be in and out of the workforce due to family responsibilities. Seven out of ten women surveyed indicated that they expected their spouses' jobs to take priority over theirs. Thus, even before they begin their careers, most young women decide that their careers will be secondary to their husbands'. Young women also know that their incomes will be lower than that of men and that their careers will be secondary to organizing their family lives (Orenstein, 2000). In fact, there is even evidence in the field of education that while experience and a degree in administration increase the chances of becoming an administrator, having a spouse and family decrease women's chances of becoming secondary school administrators (Keller, 1999). Consistent with these realities, 91% of male managers compared to only 62% of female managers in Canada are married, and 73% of these men, but only 41% of the women, have children living at home (Nakamura & Nakamura, 1989).

Another career pattern for women in education is that they rarely start out to become a principal and, as identified in the seminal work of Ortiz (1982), move into administration much later in their careers than men. Women tend to consider this goal only if the situation is right for their whole family (Pankake, 1995). In the past, men typically entered education with the goal of becoming a principal or superintendent, while women did not see themselves in any role other than that of teacher (Watwood, 1995). This pattern may be changing considering the number of women entering and completing educational administration programs (Logan, 1998).

Irby, Brown, and Trautman (1999) reviewed 13 leadership theories and concluded that traditional concepts of leadership present a barrier to women because the theories fail to address the female perspective and its related qualities. Regan (1995) suggests that most of what is learned in administrative leadership courses comes from male-based experiences. This view is supported by Hudson and Rea's 1998 study, which showed that while female and male teachers identify the same qualities as desirable in a principal regardless of the principal's gender, male principals are viewed by females as having legitimate authority based solely on the position, whereas both males and females say that women must work to earn their authority. In fact, research suggests that women are less able than men to influence others, but are more effective at getting things done (Colwill, 1997). Langford (1995) notes that an increasingly legitimized perception of leadership is one that is androgynous and recognizes that feminine leaders are well equipped to lead.

Women often identify their lack of mobility as an obstacle to career advancement (Kaplan & Tinsley, 1989). A young woman recently entering the corporate world commented, "They figure if you're a married woman, you won't travel or take out-of-town assignments" (Orenstein, 2000, p. 57). However, a national study by Sagaria (1988) indicated that 78% of women surveyed would drive more than 50 miles for a job they wanted. More recently, Harris, Arnold, Lowery, and Marshall (2001), surveyed 23 women educators who have accepted campus leadership positions over two hours away from their homes and reported that among these women there is general agreement that the job opportunity is worth the drive.

Recruiting and Retaining Principals

The role of the principal is characterized as one of the most demanding, yet satisfying and frequently sought educational leadership positions (Moore & Ditzhazy, 1999), and it is widely held that the principal plays a critical role in the success or failure of a school. At a time when the educational landscape is changing demographically, socially, and economically (Tirozzi, 2001), national and state leaders are challenging schools to set higher standards, mandating performance assessments of students, and increasing calls for site-based management. This creates an environment where more and more is expected from all school personnel, and this is especially true for the principal (Ferrandino, 2001; Moore & Ditzhazy, 1999).

Today's principal must be a skilled instructional leader, change initiator, manager, personnel director, problem solver, and visionary (Blase & Kirby, 2000; Creighton, 1999; Fullan, 1997). The campus leader's role is to formalize priorities, confer legitimacy on practices, and marshal resources that are all centered in improving student learning (Schmoker, 1997). All of this must occur during a time of great change and, as a result, the principal of the 21st century is confronted with a job filled with stress, conflict, time fragmentation, and work overload (Ferrandino, 2001; Savery & Detiuk, 1986).

School districts are finding it difficult not only to recruit principal candidates, but also to retain those candidates after serving their first year in this demanding role (Natt, 1999). Two recent studies reflect the nature of the problem. In the first study, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) reported that more than 60% of kindergarten through grade 8 principals planned to retire at the earliest age allowed by state law, while only 18% planned to retire at age 65 (Doud & Keller, 1998). In the second national study, the Educational Research Service (1998) stated that half of the districts surveyed reported difficulty finding qualified candidates. These findings have exacerbated the growing concern regarding the shortage of qualified campus principals.

Due to the demands of serving as a campus leader, stress and burnout are key contributors to the current shortage of principals across the nation (ERS, 1998). To illustrate why this is so, consider that in 1945, 59% of the duties assigned to principals were concerned with record keeping and reporting, 24% with organization and classification, 12% with care of equipment and buildings, and 6% with discipline and care of pupils (Knezevich, 1969). Apparently, not much has changed in terms of the day-to-day management of a school. Today's principals indicate that these and other managerial duties continue to inhibit their ability to provide instructional leadership (Portin, Shen, & Williams, 1998).

On top of running the school, principals must respond to ever increasing demands to interact with parent and community groups, participate in administration activities, facilitate staff involvement, and oversee student and social services (Harris, Arnold, Lowery, Crocker, 2000; Fullan, 1997; Moore, 2000). The duties and responsibilities of the principalship create time demands that are increasingly impossible to fulfill. Contrasted with 30 years ago when the typical principal worked 45 to 50 hours weekly, today's principals generally work at least 60 hours each week (McAdams, 1998; Portin, Shen & Williams, 1998).

Despite the frustrating and exhausting aspects of the principalship, many leaders who serve in this role thrive on the opportunities available to them to help children and teachers. Being a principal gives one the chance to care freely and openly every day in large and small ways (Pellicer, 1999). Principals motivated to assume this role have a clear vision and understanding of the influence a principal has on creating a professional community, which leads to improved student performance. They recognize the difference they can make in people's lives through hiring, staff development, being a change agent, and supporting their teachers and students (Fullan, 1997; Harris, Arnold, Lowery, & Crocker, 2000; Moore, 2000; National Education Association, 1997).

Sergiovanni (1992) argues that individuals are driven by what is right and good; therefore, values that serve others are indeed a valid motivator. Gunn and Holdaway (1986) identified principals' sense of accomplishment as strongly related to recognition by others and the morale and performance of teachers and students. This perceived effectiveness not only creates job satisfaction, but also serves as a motivator to continue in the principalship despite the frustrations and pressures.

The Study

Purpose

America's schools must actively recruit and retain qualified principals (Tirozzi, 2001) and, since the majority of teachers are women, more women need to see the principalship as a desirable and accessible position. The purpose of this paper is to identify those aspects of the principal's role that serve as motivators and those that serve as inhibitors for women who are deciding whether or not to become a principal. By identifying these motivators and inhibitors, school boards, educators, institutions of higher education, and local community leadership can begin to emphasize the positive aspects of the position and give potential and existing women principals the support needed to successfully face the difficulties of the position.

Participants

We conducted a study surveying 151 graduate students in educational administration attending four universities in the South to explore why they would decide to enter or not enter the principalship. The students completed the survey instrument during a regular class session, so the response rate was 100%. Due to the nature of this publication, results are provided for only the 85 female respondents. Women responding to this survey had taught an average of eight years. Half were working toward a Master's degree, while the other half were in the program to earn the degree and principal certification.

Data Collection

Students were administered a survey in class by an instructor teaching in the principal preparation program. The survey instrument was a revision based on the work of Moore and Ditzhazy (1999) and consisted of four sections. Section 1 collected demographic data about the respondent. Section 2 ascertained whether the students were interested in seeking a principalship before retirement. Section 3 listed 14 possible motivating factors that might encourage an individual to apply for a principalship and the students were asked to rank each motivating factor in order of importance in affecting their decision to seek a principalship before retirement. Section 4 listed 16 possible inhibiting factors that might discourage an individual from applying for a principalship and the students were again asked to prioritize each item in the order of most inhibiting to least inhibiting in their decision to seek the principalship.

Data Analysis

The number of respondents ranking each motivator and inhibitor as 1st, 2nd, or 3rd was summed. Based on these scores, a percentage was then calculated for each motivator and inhibitor. For example, as indicated in Table 1, 28% of the respondents ranked the motivator of "Increased salary" either 1st, 2nd, or 3rd in importance in deciding to become a principal. Twenty-five (30%) of the 85 women surveyed that they did not intend to become principals, and their responses are presented both separately and as part of the summed total responses.

Findings

Motivators. Table 1 indicates the importance participants attached to each item listed as a possible motivator. From the data collected, having a positive impact on students, the personal challenge, making a difference in the lives of kids, and the professional challenge

Table 1
Motivators to Becoming A Principal for Female Educational Administration Students

Motivators	Planning to be principal (*n* = 60)	Not planning to be principal (*n* = 25)	Total ranking 1st, 2nd, 3rd (*n* = 85)	Total % ranking 1st, 2nd, 3rd
Positive impact on students	40	13	53	62%
Personal challenge	30	13	43	51%
Make a difference	27	13	40	48%
Professional challenge	30	6	36	42%
Increased salary	20	4	24	28%
Be teacher of teachers	18	1	19	22%
Opportunity initiate change	14	2	16	19%
Encouraged by others	8	0	8	9%
Increased freedom of job	7	0	7	8%
Leave the classroom	7	0	7	8%
Influence over staffing	4	0	4	5%
Opportunity to relocate	2	0	2	3%
Lead to higher position	2	0	2	3%
Prestige	1	0	1	1%

are motivators that play a major role in a woman's decision to seek a principalship and were reported by at least 42% of the respondents. Increased salary, being a teacher of teachers, and the opportunity to initiate change were identified as motivators for one-fifth of the respondents. The motivators of prestige and status, a stepping stone to higher positions, relocating to a more desirable location, and influence over staffing appear to exert little influence in making this decision. Interestingly, the issues these female educational administration students indicate are the most motivating give insight as to the type of women who currently seek the principalship. These women are clearly motivated by intrinsic issues -- those issues that will help them contribute something positive to

Table 2
Inhibitors to Becoming a Principal for Female Educational Administration Students

Inhibitors	Planning to be principal (*n* = 60)	Not planning to be principal (*n* = 25)	Total ranking 1st, 2nd, 3rd (*n* = 85)	Total % ranking 1st, 2nd, 3rd
Too much paperwork/ bureaucracy	25	11	36	42%
Increased time commitment	26	7	33	39%
Salary that is too small	18	2	20	23%
Discipline problems	14	4	18	22%
Isolation from staff	13	5	18	22%
Longer school year	12	5	17	21%
Possible litigation	10	6	16	19%
Emphasis on standardized tests	11	5	16	19%
Distance from the students	10	4	14	18%
Fear of failure	9	3	12	14%
No tenure	12	0	12	14%
Personal safety	8	1	9	11%
Possibility of relocation	9	0	9	11%
No autonomy	6	1	7	8%
Influence of outside groups	5	1	6	7%
Others discourage this pursuit	1	2	3	3%

education. However, the importance of increased salary cannot be overlooked. Even though women seek this position for all the right reasons, such as an inherent desire to make the world a better place by enhancing the lives of children, one-fourth of women also indicate that appropriate compensation for assuming this demanding position plays a part in deciding whether to make this major commitment.

Inhibitors. Table 2 indicates that of the 16 items listed, two inhibitors are identified by at least 39% as having a strong negative impact on women's decisions to become principal: paperwork and bureaucracy. Small salary, discipline problems, isolation from staff, and the longer school year are reported by at least one-fifth of the respondents. These are followed closely by litigation, too much testing, and the distance from students.

Discussion

The results of this survey support previous research findings that the greatest motivators for female educators who seek the principalship are intrinsic and service-oriented (Harris, Arnold, Lowery, & Crocker, 2000; Moore, 2000; Moore & Ditzhazy, 1999). The survey results are also consistent with other studies that identify the tremendous time commitment and increased paperwork and bureaucracy as preventing women from deciding to become principals (Harris, et al., 2000; Moore, 2000; Moore & Ditzhazy, 1999). The question that must be asked, then, is what can school boards, educators, universities, and other community gatekeepers do to allow these intrinsically motivated, service-oriented professional women to focus on the positive aspects of the job? Based on the findings of this study, the following six recommendations are made for school boards and communities to consider:

- Reduce and/or streamline paperwork and reporting requirements and/or provide trained clerical assistance and other support personnel.
- Consider the time commitment required to be a successful principal and consider creative restructuring, such as job sharing. For example, one school used a team of six people -- one for each grade level -- to act collectively as principal (Ashford, 2000).
- Increase salaries. Almost one-fourth of the women surveyed identified low salary as an inhibitor, placing salary as the third most important negative factor in becoming a principal. Conversely, a little over one-fourth indicated that increased salary is a motivator, ranking salary as one of the top five motivators. Salary appears to be a factor for many women who decide both to pursue and not pursue the principalship and should be given consideration by school governing bodies.
- Provide staff development training on school-wide discipline for principals and faculty that focuses on creating a positive campus climate and preventative discipline strategies.
- Recruit successful women principals to serve as mentors to graduate educational administration students to encourage them to enter the principalship and to serve as mentors for new principals as they continue their on-site training beyond the university.
- Cultivate a positive relationship with the media so that good stories about what the schools are doing are shared with a wider audience.

Conclusion

Due to the critical nature of the principal's role, every community in the nation must actively address the issue of recruiting and retaining qualified female principals. Before this can be done, however, it is important to understand the factors that motivate women to seek this position as well as those that inhibit women from choosing to become principals. With 66% of teachers (Criswell & Betz, 1995) and at least half of the university principal preparation students being female (Logan, 1998), there is a growing talent pool from which to select qualified women to become principals. When leaders in the education community provide support for prospective female, as well as male, principals by strengthening motivating factors and reducing inhibiting forces, America's school children will ultimately be the winners.

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Chapter 43

Women Elementary Principals Describe Their Challenges

Marilyn L. Grady
Barbara Y. LaCost

The principals noted that they often felt isolated by their work and indicated that the focus group discussions were a worthwhile antidote to the isolation.

With the financial support of the Nebraska Department of Education, 72 focus groups involving 288 Nebraska elementary principals were conducted during the spring and summer of 2000. In the study, we sought to extend the work completed by the Iowa Department of Education and Iowa State University researchers who conducted four focus groups and surveyed elementary principals in Iowa concerning the needs and challenges in providing integrated services to the Early Childhood-Special Education (EC-ECSE) populations (Brotherson, 1994).

The Iowa researchers found that principals expressed strong positive feelings about the opportunities offered by focus groups, namely,

- increased opportunities for collegiality and for reflection on this important, but often neglected, aspect of their work;
- urgency for additional training for administrators; and
- increased awareness of the need for collaboration with community leaders and agencies.

Purpose

The grand purpose of our study was to determine the issues and needs of elementary principals related to the development, implementation, and maintenance of early childhood education programs in Nebraska schools. Nine of the 72 focus groups were comprised exclusively of women elementary school principals. This chapter focuses on these women elementary principals and the challenges they experience in their work. Participants were selected based on their reputations for reflective thinking and articulation of ideas, and a series of topics guided the focus group discussions.

Methodology

Krueger's (1994) work on focus group methodology guided the research. "Focus group discussion is particularly effective in providing information about why people think or feel the way they do" (p. 3). "A focus group is typically composed of 7 to 10 participants who are selected because they have certain characteristics in common that relate to the topic of the focus group" (p. 6). In this study, focus groups included 3 to 6 elementary principals. All the participants had the opportunity to share their insights and the group size provided a diversity of perceptions.

"Open-ended approaches allow the subject ample opportunity to comment, to explain, and to share experiences and attitudes as opposed to the structured and directive

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interview that is led by the interviewer" (Krueger, 1994, p. 7). "One of the greatest advantages of focus groups -- or qualitative methods in general -- is that they give us information in depth" (p. 33).

According to Krueger (1994), focus groups have six advantages:

1. the procedure is socially oriented;
2. the format allows the moderator to probe;
3. discussions have high face validity;
4. discussions can be relatively low cost;
5. results can be obtained rather quickly; and
6. the researcher can increase the sample size of qualitative studies.

In forming the focus groups for our research, we were aware of the caveat offered by Krueger (1994):

> At times, it is unwise to mix gender in focus groups.... Men may have a tendency to speak more frequently and with more authority when in groups with women - sometimes called the "peacock effect" -- and consequently this can be an irritant to the women in the group. Myril Axelrod (1975) recommends against mixing sexes in a focus group because "men tend to 'perform' for the women and vice versa" (p.79).

We followed suggestions provided in Krueger's applied research guide (1994) concerning theoretical saturation:

> To continue conducting interviews until little new information is provided -- or when you have reached theoretical saturation. Theoretical saturation is a concept coming from grounded theory, which was described by Glaser and Strauss (1967). With theoretical saturation, one samples until each category of investigation is saturated. Strauss and Corbin (1990) describe it as a situation that occurs when (1) no new or relevant data seem to emerge regarding a category; (2) the category development is dense, insofar as all of the paradigm elements are accounted for, along with variation and process; (3) the relationships between categories are well established and validated (p. 88)

We conducted focus groups until saturation was achieved. The participants represented a range of school sizes, as well as the geographic dispersion of the state of Nebraska. The focus group discussions were audio recorded. The audiotapes were transcribed verbatim and formed the basis for the analysis. We were guided in the analysis of the focus group transcripts by the following principle:

> A guiding principle of analysis is to provide enlightenment, to lift the level of understanding to a new plateau.
>
> - What was known and then confirmed or challenged by this study?
> - What was suspected and then confirmed or challenged by this study?
> - What was new that wasn't previously suspected? (Krueger, 1994, p. 135-136).

Findings

The findings are based on the responses given by women principals to the question concerning the challenges they experience in the elementary principalship. The five themes that emerged from the analysis of the transcripts were: staff, students, time and stress, focus, and public engagement. Following are samples of the women's comments concerning their challenges.

Staff

One of the frequently mentioned challenges described by the women elementary principals was working with staff. The women emphasized the importance of maintaining staff morale. Concerns about staff burnout and morale were dominant issues in the discussions.

- My goal is to get the highest quality staff I can... keep things with our staff so that the staff maintains a high morale and doesn't burn out and they know we are supporting them.... We keep expecting more and more of them every day. My energy goes to maintaining their level of energy.
- There are people burning out so fast.
- Principals are trying to take more things off the plate... to take [things] on themselves and to try to take the burden and the guilt on their shoulders rather than having the teachers do it, because they are already so overburdened.

Students

The principals described the challenges associated with their work with students. The issues included student behaviors, readiness to learn, and the differences in the students served by the schools. The principals' level of concern and frustration are reflected in the following comments:

- What you end up with is social skills, behavioral management as your major focus.
- Dealing with the different, not necessarily behaviors, but some of the volatileness of our kids, even elementary kids. You are constantly racking your brain and looking and searching for ideas and resources and something that will make a difference for that particular kid and having enough time to pay attention to all those things that make it or break it in the classroom.
- A constant issue is how to deal with the minority children... with the different languages that they have. [Those] who haven't been in school and then they come in 5th grade never having been in school. How do you place that child? How do you provide the services that that child is going to need, because they may be there for a day or they may be there for a year?
- Teachers are stressed by the same things, because there are a lot of demands on t heir time and they know that they have Sally Sue here and John over there and two or three kids in their room with special needs and then they have two or three, on the other hand, who are gifted and need extra challenges. Just covering the wide variety that is in front of each teacher each day, that is hard.
- The inclusion piece is a challenge. When you have so many demands every day and then you add a student with a lot of needs into a classroom... you need to spend a lot of time meeting up front and it has to be continual or you could very easily lose that child. In the last two years we have added students with some pretty high needs, it has been quite a learning experience. It takes time.

Time and Stress

In all of the focus groups, the issues of time and stress were described as challenges. Embedded in these constraints were concerns about opportunities for professional development and renewal. Examples of the discussion include the following:

- The stress and time factor are big things, too.... I had no idea the amount of time that it would take to do this job. I didn't realize how much stress really exists in the principal's position.
- Having the time in the day to respond to all the demands is an incredible challenge. You have parents wanting your time, the students have always got to come first, [but] you need to spend time with the teachers. You want to offer staff

development, you want to give people the opportunities to continue to grow, and you need to be there to make sure that happens. It's a struggle having enough time to meet all the demands. Sometimes when you leave at night, you think of two or three things you should have done during the day and you put them at the top of the list for the next day, but sometimes I even make some of those calls at night at home, because I think there are some things that can't wait.

- It's a struggle learning how to deal with stress in your life and the time... that it takes to be a principal.
- Time to do everything is the big issue.
- Focusing the energy and focusing your time -- that takes an enormous effort.
- Time is a very big challenge -- keeping your priorities in focus and what you need to work on.
- We need time just to talk with other principals. And we do this maybe once or twice a year. Not nearly enough.
- It's overwhelming, trying to deal with as many things as you have to effectively.
- Trying to stay up-to-date knowledge wise, whether it be academically in the curricular area or community wise, where's the time for that?

Focus

Identifying priorities and being persistent in their pursuit were challenges described by the women. Using terms such as vision, focus, and priorities, their comments follow:

- Keeping the vision very clear, very focused, having lots of input from people beyond the school should be the priority.
- Being able to take every piece of the job and treating it like it's all important when I really want to say "No" to this so I can focus on instruction and support what's happening in the classroom. We need to support teachers through the appraisal process, too, to make it a learning and growing opportunity and not just a check off the visit type of thing. It's important to work with staff who need more support and find the time to do that. And we need time to really work with colleagues and to brainstorm.
- I guess not micromanaging and... encouraging your staff to take on a lot of the responsibility and be united in the mission with you; then you can really work on those kinds of things that have priority, like instruction.
- I can help teachers feel good about being there and help them get the best training they want, but my challenge is to stay focused on that and not all the other stuff.
- I thought that I was going to be this leader, and I was going to direct them. I was going to be the one in charge. That changed in the first two or three days of my experience working with staff and seeing that they are the ones that deal with the children on a daily basis. They are the ones that should become the leaders and you just help manage that leadership and help direct them and help provide vision and goals for what needs to be done.

Public Engagement

Communicating with the public was described as a major challenge. The complexity of this challenge is reflected in the participants' comments.

- It is hard to tell people what it is we do and we have to do that in order for them to know what our jobs and needs are. You have to let either your superiors or the public understand what happens in education. A great percentage of the population was in school a long time ago and their understanding and vision of schooling and what children are doing isn't consistent with what is happening today.

- That public engagement piece is really important to me. I can't do it all by myself. I need to join with as many other people as I can to help them see the vision so they can help.
- You need to communicate with the public. You've got to be able to get out there to face them.... You're the one who needs to set the parameters and the guidelines to work with them. And if you can't get that done, you're going to have some big deals, big issues that are absolutely overwhelming and the school is not going to operate. You've got to get out there with the public, not only with the parents, but also with the community and the different agencies and find out what's going on out there.

Conclusions

The challenges described by the women elementary principals during the focus groups are familiar issues for school administrators. Working with staff and students are standard, expected dimensions of the administrator's work. What distinguishes these challenges, from the perspectives of these women, is that the student issues have become more complex, more demanding, and, thus, more challenging.

With respect to the staff issues, the dominant themes were morale, burnout, and stress. These themes are contemporary issues for adult professionals that demand greater attention in all professions (Brock & Grady, 2000; Brock & Grady, 2002).

The challenge of too many demands and too little time are persistent, enduring issues in the principalship. Maintaining focus and direction in pursuit of goals, given time constraints, were challenges clearly articulated by the participants.

The importance of public engagement also emerged from the focus group discussions. Although public relations and school-community relations are integral parts of the elementary principalship, the importance of communicating to the public what occurs in schools is a different challenge. Educators continually encounter a public who, because they have been to school, often presume to be experts on schooling. This challenge is magnified when schoolhouse issues have been transformed by societal changes regarding the meaning of family and community as well as the burgeoning presence of technology in all aspects of life. The diversity of student populations and student needs are also aspects of schools that have changed in ways that may not be familiar to the public. Making the public aware of these new expectations are tasks that rest with the principal. Bringing the public along to the new dimensions of schooling is a significant new challenge that goes beyond newsletters, sending letters home, parent-teacher conferences, PTAs, and other standard community relations efforts (Grady, 2000).

Recommendations

1. Further efforts to engage women elementary principals in focus group discussions should be made. All of the women commented on the value of participating in the discussions and lamented the lack of opportunities to discuss significant educational issues with other principals. They described the focus groups as "just right" in length of time and topic focus and indicated a willingness to attend subsequent focus groups. The focus groups were described by the participants as "affirming." The principals noted that they often felt isolated by their work and indicated that the focus group discussions were a worthwhile antidote to the isolation.
2. The development of networks for women administrators should be encouraged. Opportunities to have discussions with other elementary principals were important to the participants.
3. Administrators need to develop their skills in systematizing and prioritizing their goals. The discussions made clear that the elementary principal's tasks are multiple, complex and demanding. The focus group participants were consistent in describing

this process as a challenge.

4. Principals need to develop strategies for managing time and handling stress. Scheduling personal time for stress-reducing activities is essential. Physical recreation and quiet times are critical to healthy living. Principals need to take care of their own needs before they attempt to meet the needs of others (Brock & Grady, 2000; Brock & Grady, 2002).

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Chapter 44

Stages of Change

Gwen Schroth

Retire? Who, me? Never!
I'll teach, write, plan -- forever.
Read professional journals,
Discuss curriculum, how people learn,
Attend conferences, compose memos,
Collaborate, attend meetings.
THIS is me.

My friend is glowing.
She boasts, "I'm retired!"
She has a busy schedule,
Little time for me.
She says she is happy; I don't believe it.
But I watch.

I'm getting tired.
My students are so, so young.
They don't remember WWII, carbon paper, or values clarification.
My colleagues are young.
They rush from class to class, meeting to meeting, with vigor.
They want to get ahead, and, of course, get there first.
I watch them whiz by, remembering the urgency
But not the reasons for it.

Too often
    I've said, "I'm busy,"
    When my daughters asked, "Come help me birth my child,"
    When my husband said, "Come sit on the porch."
Too often
    Travel brochures went in the trash.
    The weeds grew and the flowers went unnoticed.
    A sister died without my hand in hers.

The big R -- maybe not so bad.
I've met so many challenges, climbed tall mountains.
I'm strong!
I close the door to my office for the last time; say my goodbyes.
My step is firm, eyes bright -- eager for this new beginning.

Dr. Schroth is an Associate Professor in the Department of Educational Administration at Texas A&M University-Commerce.

Chapter 45

Back Doors Are Front Doors to Other Places

Anita Pankake

Back doors are front doors to other places.
Sometimes we walk out;
Sometimes we are pushed out;
Sometimes we initiate an escape.
But getting out of there offers
Opportunities to go elsewhere.
Can't go on or in until we get out and away.
Back doors are front doors to other places.
Watch for the welcome signs to "come on in."

Dr. Pankake is a Professor in the Department of Educational Administration at Texas A&M University-Commerce.

Chapter 46

A Typical Day in the Life of a Woman Principal/Wife/Mother!

Melinda DeFelice

Am I tired? Yes! Am I exhilarated? Yes!

Typical Morning at Home
5:00 a.m.
Alarm goes off!
I lie there debating getting up -- knowing full well that I will... eventually!
5:30 a.m.
Run four miles on the treadmill and visit with my husband while he rides the stationary bike
Lift weights
Whew! I feel good!
Skip the sit-ups
Throw a load of clothes in the wash
Shower
Put on make-up at the kitchen table so I can visit with my one- and three-year-old boys while they eat breakfast
Sweep the kitchen
Dress our older son while Daddy dresses our younger son
Put the dishes in the dishwasher
Load the car
Kiss my husband goodbye
Leave with wet hair
Drop the boys off at day-care
Race to get to work by 7:30 a.m.
Whew! I made it!

Typical Morning at Work
Now that I am at work... (what was all that I accomplished before 7:00 a.m.?!)
Turn on the computer
Check voice mail
Check e-mail
Look at my planner
Brush my almost dry hair
Morning cafeteria supervision from 8:00-8:20 a.m.
Secretary tells me two teachers are out with no substitutes
Beg teachers to cover classes
Hall duty from 8:20-8:30 a.m.
Parent shows up to tell me how awful I am!
Several walk-throughs
Return phone calls
Student discipline

Dr. DeFelice is the Principal at Dowell Middle School in McKinney, Texas.

Paper work
Conference with a teacher
Forty-five-minute ARD meeting - UGH!
Check e-mail
Student discipline -- I actually got through to him!
Check voice mail
Return calls

Typical Afternoon at Work
Lunch duty from 12:15-1:00 p.m. (This is fun because I truly get to know my kiddos!)
Committee meeting
30 minute ARD -- we dismissed a student from special education
Student discipline
Paper work
Another ARD
Visit with my husband on the phone -- smooches
Check e-mail
Check voice mail
Whew! Starting to fade
Eat chocolate and drink a Coke!
OK... better!
Student discipline
Parent shows up to tell me how great I am! Yeah!
Bell rings at 3:30 p.m.
Bus duty in front of school until 3:50 p.m.
Get organized for tomorrow
4:30 p.m. -- leave if there is no athletic event to attend!

Typical Evening at Home
Rush to get home by 5:00 p.m.
Take off my make-up, brush my teeth, and change clothes
Whew!
Get dinner ready
Daddy and I feed the boys
Daddy and I bathe the boys
Daddy and I dress the boys
Whew!
Daddy goes to the driving range
Watch "Scooby-Doo" with the boys
Play with the boys and give them lots of kisses and tell them how much I love them!
Watch Zaboomafu with the boys while they have cookies and milk
Play with the boys and give them lots of kisses and tell them how much I love them!
Bedtime for the boys -- brush teeth, potty, read books, night-night!
Whew!
Mommy time!
Lie on the couch
Read a book for ten minutes
Fall asleep on the couch
Wake up and visit with my husband
Get up and get in the bed
Wake up during the night
Pray it is only around 1:00 a.m.

Summon the courage to look at alarm clock
GGGGGRRRRRRRRRR -- it's inevitably 4:57 a.m.
5:00 a.m.
Alarm goes off!

Epilogue
Although my day is extremely trying and busy, it is also amazingly rewarding! I see on a daily basis how my efforts positively affect my family, my students, my teachers, and the school as a whole, and this makes me proud. It would be deceitful to leave you thinking that I do this all by myself and that I am Superwoman. I would not be able to do any of what I do without the support of my loving husband! He is my biggest cheerleader and encourages me to climb the leadership ladder! He gets the boys' breakfast ready in the morning, dresses my younger son while I dress my oldest, gets their lunches ready, and helps load them in the car. He then picks up the boys from day-care in the afternoon, and helps bathe them and get their dinner ready before he races off to the driving range until 8:00 p.m. However, if I have an athletic event, my husband has to do the entire evening routine by himself! (I think this is good for him! Ha!) Am I tired? Yes! Am I exhilarated? Yes!

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